THE MECHANISM OF THE SENTENCE

AN EXPLANATION OF THE RELATIONS OF WORDS IN ORGANIZED SPEECH

FOR THE USE OF TEACHERS OF LANGUAGE

BY

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PREFACE

The aim of this book is to set forth the main facts of sentence structure ; it makes no claim to be exhaustive even on matters of which it treats, nor does it aspire to the dignity of a general or comparative grammar. Such references as it makes to languages other than English are intended to illustrate the points under notice, to keep the student aware that what he is doing has a wider significance, and to guide him in the application of the principles expounded.

As its purpose indicates, the book is concerned with Syntax as distinguished from Accidence. The Accidence of a language is peculiar to it, while Syntax, which treats of the relations of words to one another, is to a large extent common to all languages and is the foundation of the Accidence. A careful study of the Syntax of one language should enable the student so to understand the functioning of words, as readily to grasp the significance of the phenomena presented by any language he may wish to study. The prevailing ignorance of grammar is due to an error of method which has obscured the obvious fact that the sentence is the unit of speech and should be the point of departure, if the study is to be intelligent and fruitful.

Much that is written herein may be beyond the comprehension of the average school-boy, but it will assist the teacher to a better understanding of the machinery of verbal expression, and it is for the teacher of language that the book is primarily intended. At the same time pains have been taken to make it as simple as possible, in the hope that it may be useful to students in the higher standards of secondary schools. Much will appear to be subversive of accepted opinion, but whether a new presentation is true or false must

be decided after it has been subjected to criticism; such presentation is justified if, although erroneous in itself, it provokes discussion and leads to improvement. It is hardly necessary to say that the book would not have been written, if the writer were not convinced of the error of some accepted views. A new method of sentence analysis, one more in accordance with logical laws than that usually employed, is offered.

What is peculiar to this book is for the most part the result of independent study of sentence structure in the light afforded by various languages, and by experience of schoolboy difficulties. Gleanings have been made from many fields, but these gleanings have been rather of the nature of suggestions than of definite doctrine, and as I am unable to remember to whom I owe these, I am debarred from expressing my obligations. The section on the Cases owes much to Thompson's *Greek Syntax* and my best thanks are due to Mr. John Murray for his courtesy in allowing me to make what use I pleased of Maetzner's *English Grammar*, a work which must always remain a chief authority on the language, and one which every student of English should have by his side.

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

GRAMMAR in the strict sense is the science which treats of the relations of words to one another and of the inflections to which they are subject, when employed to express the thought of those using them. As thus defined, it must be distinguished on the one hand from RHETORIC, which is concerned with the means employed to arouse and stimulate the feelings or to convince the reason of the hearer or reader; and on the other hand from PHONOLOGY, the science of speech sounds and the changes they undergo, so far as they depend upon the physical conformation of the organs of speech; from PHILOLOGY, the science which, by aid of the comparative method, treats of the derivation of words, in so far as they are derived from older or foreign sources; and from PROSODY which treats of the rules which govern the arrangement of words with a view to producing a regular and musical rhythm. A knowledge of these related sciences is helpful in the study of language, but as defined above, grammar takes its materials as they are presented in organised speech, and does not concern itself with the history of the sounds or forms employed, or with the methods employed to render speech more effective as an appeal to the emotions or the reason.

A knowledge of grammar is not essential to the power to use a language effectively, a power gained for the most part through conscious or unconscious imitation. Grammar is but an analysis of actual speech and therefore logically subsequent to it; the rules it enunciates are statements of uniformities discernible in speech generally accepted as correct; the ground of these uniformities must be sought in the nature of the thought processes. On the other hand, very few

write or speak their own tongue correctly, and a sound knowledge of grammar enables the possessor to criticise expression and to correct it when it is wrong, to learn a new language with comparative ease, and to teach language with a clear conception of the nature and limits of his task.

There exists a tendency to look upon the study of grammar as largely a waste of time, and this perhaps it is when the attention is directed to superficial facts, and takes little count of the underlying logical foundations; but when the study of grammar and rhetoric constituted the main business of student life, education produced minds of surpassing vigour and this of itself is sufficient to show the error of the opinion mentioned. Thought and language are so interdependent that they advance more or less together. The close study of language, when properly carried out, confers upon the mind an aptitude for analysis and discrimination which is the peculiar characteristic of the highly educated, and this capacity, when once acquired, can be readily employed upon the problems that practical life offers.

The science most closely allied to grammar is Logic, for Logic is the science of the thought processes, while grammar is the science of the expression these processes receive when they are set forth in words. It has been attempted to treat grammar as a purely formal science, independent of Logic, but no such effort has ever been successful, because the ultimate test of correctness must be the thought that determines the nature of the phenomena grammar tries to analyse and explain. An analysis of speech must reflect the course of the thought expressed, if it is to be intelligible, and if grammar is to be made, what it can be made, a valuable instrument of education. The primary object of grammatical investigation is the sentence, which is the expression of a judgment, and the rules of grammar arise from the nature

and functioning of the Parts of Speech, the classes or kinds of words employed to build up the expression of the judgment. The classification of words into Parts of Speech rests upon the fact that in order to convey to a hearer what we wish to convey, we must employ certain kinds of words which symbolise a fixed number of thought relations.

It is in connection with Logic then that the study of grammar is most profitable. When taught in the right way, it furnishes the gate of entry into a whole series of sciences, the mental sciences, which demand for their successful prosecution the power to turn the mind inward upon itself and to make its own operations matter of investigation. No system of secondary education can be considered satisfactory, if it does not produce a consciousness of the existence of these sciences and some conception of their nature. It is not sufficiently recognised how much ordinary opinion suffers from the prevailing ignorance regarding the part played by the subjective element in conscious life.

Speech is the expression of thought, and words stand for, or symbolise, notions and relations discernible in states of consciousness. It is convenient to speak of words governing or qualifying other words, but it must be borne in mind that this manner of speaking is misleading. An Adjective does not qualify a Noun, but symbolises or denotes a quality perceived or thought to belong to a thing of which the Noun is the name; an Adverb does not qualify a Verb, but signifies a modification of an activity expressed by a Verb. No study of grammar which does not continually refer the term to the notion it symbolises can be of much practical value. We wish it to be understood that, when we employ the customary language, we intend thereby to refer to the notion expressed, and of course through the notion to the thing from which it arises.

Here is no 'notion' beside the 'thing' itself.

CHAPTER II

THE SENTENCE

1. The Nature of the Sentence.

The unit of speech is the Sentence, and the sentence is the expression of an act of judgment, affirming or denying a certain relation of one notion to another, or to put the matter in a different way, it is the means whereby a speaker makes a statement regarding some object present to his mind, with a view to conveying his opinion to his audience. A complete sentence therefore contains two terms, one of which is affirmed or denied of the other. For example, I may say 'the cart' and my hearer waits to hear what I have to say about it ; I must affirm something of the cart, if any information is to be given, such as that it is 'moving', 'broken', etc., and these words stand for notions affirmed of the cart.

The coincidence of the sentence with the logical judgment must be emphasised. If a sentence mirrors a judgment, as of course it always does and must do, then it must conform to the logical law that a judgment must relate two and only two terms. The lengthy expressions employed in ordinary speech are the result of attempts to present the notions we intend to convey in a way to make them sufficiently precise and clear.

2. Kinds of Sentences.

Sentences may be classified in various ways, according as this or that conception is made the ground of classification.

The fundamental classification is that which divides them into the following kinds on the ground of their general significance :—

1. Assertory or Categorical Sentences ;

Those wherein the predicate notion is directly affirmed or denied of the subject notion in a particular way;

"He will come to-morrow."

"The war may be over next year."

2. **Interrogative Sentences;**

Those which ask for the supplying of some element necessary to the completion of a suggested judgment or proposition;

"Will he come to-morrow?"

"Where is he going?"

"What are the best means to employ?"

"Did the porter bring up the parcels?"

3. **Petitionery Sentences;**

Those which indicate the speaker's desire that a suggested relation of predicate to subject may be made actual;

"Let him come to-morrow."

"Do not take any further trouble."

"Bring the man with you."

"May God keep you in peace."

4. **Exclamatory Sentences;**

Those which indicate the emotion or feeling aroused in the speaker's mind by an assertion, question, etc., previously uttered or in some way suggested.

"He will come to-morrow!"

"How great a thing is man!"

"What trouble he must have taken!"

On the ground of their *logical quality* all the above kinds of sentences may be divided into;—

(*a*) Affirmative Sentences, *i.e.*, those which affirm one notion of another, as:—

"This book is useful."

"*Christmas will soon be here.*"

(*b*) NEGATIVE SENTENCES, *i.e.*, those which deny that one notion is applicable to another :—

"*This book is not useful.*"

"*The ship will never reach the harbour.*"

(*c*) HYPOTHETICAL SENTENCES, *i.e.*, those which express a possibility only, as :—

"*Perhaps this book will be useful.*"

"*They may come to-morrow.*"

On the ground of their *logical quantity* we may divide all sentences into :—

(*a*) UNIVERSAL SENTENCES, *i.e.* those wherein the subject expression includes or excludes the whole class denoted by the subject Noun, as

"All animals *have a nervous system.*"

"No man *is found wholly innocent of wrong.*"

(*b*) PARTICULAR SENTENCES, *i.e.* those wherein the subject notion is restricted to a portion only of the whole class denoted by the Noun, as

"Some animals *are cold-blooded.*"

"Few boys *are fond of study.*"

On the ground of the *form of the subject expression* sentences may be divided into :—

(*a*) PERSONAL SENTENCES, *i.e.*, those wherein the subject is clearly defined, as "The cat jumps."

(*b*) IMPERSONAL SENTENCES, *i.e.*, those wherein the subject is not so defined as "It rains."

On the ground of their *structure* sentences may be divided into :—

(*a*) SIMPLE SENTENCES, *i.e.*, those which contain but a single subject and a single predicate, as

"*The doctor is coming.*"

"*The sun has set.*"

(*b*) COMPOUND SENTENCES. This name is usually given to a *period* which contains a succession of two or more simple sentences linked together by Conjunctions.

It is better to treat such periods as consisting of a succession of simple sentences and to eliminate the so-called Compound Sentence altogether. (See Chap. XIV.)

(*c*) CONTRACTED SENTENCES. Those sentences wherein two or more simple sentences, each expressing a separate judgment, are so combined as to receive the form of one sentence. This becomes possible when two or more sentences contain a common element. (See Chap. XIV).

"*I and my brother ran away.*" i.e., I ran away and my brother ran away.

(*d*) COMPLEX SENTENCES. Those wherein but one complete judgment is expressed, but wherein subsidiary clauses, expressive of subsidiary judgments, take the place of word elements;

"*The man who was leading the horse told me of the accident.*"

Here the clause "who was leading the horse" functions as an Adjective qualifying 'man', but it contains all the elements necessary to a complete sentence.

3. Principal and Dependent Clauses.

The structure of a complex sentence renders it necessary to distinguish the principal from the dependent or subsidiary clauses. It is the subsidiary clause which stands for or does the work of a word element in the principal clause, while the principal clause expresses the main subject and predicate notions of the complete judgment and the relation subsisting

between these. A dependent clause contains all the elements necessary to the formation of a sentence, but its purpose is to define or determine the main subject or predicate notion more particularly, and it is not expressive of the main intention of the speaker. For example, "The man who told me of this was shocked when he heard my reply." Here "who told me of this", is an Adjective clause, assisting to define the subject notion, while "when he heard my reply" is an Adverb clause, defining the time reference of the main predicate word 'shocked'; the principal clause is "The man was shocked."

4. Co-ordinate and Subordinate Clauses.

All principal clauses are of independent rank and so may be said to be co-ordinate with one another. Dependent clauses are usually subordinate to some word in the principal clause, but sometimes two or more may be in the same rank of subordination with reference to that word, and are then co-ordinate with reference to one another. For example, in "The boy, who was playing outside and who was amusing himself quietly, came when I called", 'who was playing' and 'who was amusing himself' are both Adjective clauses qualifying 'boy', and therefore co-ordinate with one another, although both of them are subordinate to 'boy' in the principal clause. In the sentence, "My mother was sitting in the chair which my father used before he died," the clause 'before he died' qualifies 'used', while the clause 'which my father used' is dependent upon and qualifies 'chair'. The former clause is therefore subordinate to the latter.

The extent to which this subordination of clause to clause can go on is determined by considerations of clearness; if carried too far it leads to confusion. We employ the terms co-ordinate and subordinate in their usual adjectival meanings and not as technical epithets, since, as was shown above, the same clause may be co-ordinate and subordinate

at the same time. The name 'dependent' is not altogether satisfactory since some Noun clauses are not really dependent upon anything. (See Chap. XV.)

5. Incomplete Sentences.

In what follows, we treat of complete sentences, but in ordinary intercourse it is customary to leave out much that is readily understood from what has gone before or is suggested by attendant circumstances. If the omitted elements are not thus understood, an incomplete sentence fails to convey information. For example, the question may be asked, "Where is your brother ? " and the reply may be, "At home" 'at home' apart from any context conveys no information, but in the example given it stands for "My brother is at home"; what is needed for a full sentence is drawn from the question. In this way 'Yes' and 'No' stand for whole sentences. as in "Is he here? " "Yes", *i.e.*, "He is here."

Incomplete sentences usually arise in the following ways :—

(*a*) **Aposiopesis.**

This takes place when the speaker breaks off in the middle of a sentence and continues with another of different meaning. This breaking off may be due to a desire on the part of the speaker that his hearer should supply the remainder of the sentence for himself, or to a change of purpose on his own part ;

"*If you do that I shall—but there, nothing is to be gained by going into detail.*"

(*b*) **Anakoluthon.**

This occurs when a sentence begun in one construction is completed in another in such a way that, although the intended information is conveyed by the substituted construction, yet the first sentence is not truly completed in form.

"*But that ye may know that the Son of Man hath power on earth to forgive sins, he saith to the sick of the palsy, etc.*"

(*c*) **Ellipsis.**

Usage and the desire for brevity and conciseness of expression lead to the omission of essential elements from the sentence;

"*I have found the things I sought for.*" ('which' is omitted.)

(*d*) **Interrogation.**

Most questions ask for the supply of an element necessary to the completion of the suggested sentence. The answer giving this element is sufficiently intelligible, although an incomplete sentence in itself;

"*Where are you going?*" Answer, "*To the next village*" *i.e.* I am going to the next village.

CHAPTER III

THE ANALYSIS OF THE SENTENCE

1. The Primary Elements.

Every sentence may be resolved into the following three primary elements :—

(*a*) The words employed to specify or denote that concerning which a statement is made,—*The Subject.*

(*b*) The word or words which define the notion or quality affirmed, denied or hypothecated of the Subject,—*The Predicate.*

(*c*) The word, words or other sign, expressing the act of judgment or relating, and indicating the manner in which, or the extent to which, the Predicate is affirmed or denied of the Subject,—*The Copula.*

It should be clear that the third element must be given distinct recognition, for it must be present in thought, even if it does not appear in expression ; the act of affirmation must be separable from the notion affirmed. This will be better understood presently.

It is necessary to recognise that a sentence sometimes expresses one and sometimes two activities ; *always* the activity of judgment on the part of the speaker, and *sometimes* the activity of another agent, the subject of the sentence. For example, if I say, "The horse ran very fast" I state a judgment, *i.e.* an activity of my own mind, and also an activity of the horse ; if I say, "The horse is a roan," I still express an activity of my mind but not an activity of the horse. This point must be carefully noted because the confusion of these two activities has lead to considerable misunderstanding.

THE SUBJECT.

2. The Noun.

The Subject of the sentence always contains or implies some word which is the name of that concerning which a statement is made, and this kind of word is called a NOUN. Anything capable of being made an object of thought can be the subject of affirmation, but when such notion or object has no name appropriated to it, it must be defined by a phrase or clause, *i.e.* be stated in words which sufficiently indicate the object intended, but cannot be called names, *e.g.* "That sheep are stupid animals is well known," and "'Oh ! my leg !' was heard," here 'that sheep are stupid animals' and 'Oh ! my leg !' are the subjects of the respective sentences, but since they have no special names, they are expressed in full; such phrases or clauses are *Noun Phrases or Clauses.*

3. The Pronoun.

In continuous discourse concerning a particular thing, it is often necessary to make repeated reference to it, and in order to avoid repetition of the Noun, small words are used, which must, by their form, show that they stand for a definite antecedent Noun ; such words are PRONOUNS. *E.g.* "The man crossed the road but when I called out to him he returned," *i.e.* "The man crossed the road, but when I called out to the man, the man returned." The Pronoun refers to its antecedent 'man' and is made masculine and singular in order to show this ; if it were feminine, neuter or plural, it would refer to somebody else. It should be clear that since a Pronoun can stand for an indefinite number of things, it has no meaning apart from its reference to an antecedent. In our remarks about Nouns we may be understood to include the Pronouns we may substitute for them.

4. Adjectives or Noun Determinants.

A Noun may be the name of a single thing only, or it may be the common name of all members of a class of things possessing similar qualities. It is often necessary to make statements about some portion only of the whole class of things of which a Noun is the name, or to draw attention to some one particular quality of the individual intended; words, phrases or clauses are then attached to the Noun to mark off or denote the portion intended, and these may also define the qualities or characteristics peculiar to the particular portion of the class considered. Such words, phrases or clauses are ADJECTIVES or *Adjective Phrases or Clauses.*

5. Class Names.

If it were not possible thus to group things into classes and so to economise names, each separate thing would require a distinct name, and human intercourse would be greatly impeded, because the name would convey no idea through which things could be compared and their kind determined. Suppose that the name 'Tom' is appropriated to a particular cat; if I say "There goes Tom", a hearer who did not know that particular cat, or that it was so named, would not know what I meant except by guessing, and I could not tell him without using a common name in the description. I must say, "It is a thing which" etc. or "it is an animal which," etc. and 'thing' and 'animal' are common Nouns. If I say "There goes a cat," the hearer knows at once the kind of animal I mean, and certain qualities are suggested to his mind. The reader may profitably amuse himself by trying to describe to another a thing unknown to him, without employing a common name in the description. Class names represent the groups man has found it convenient to make, and new names are continually being made as necessity requires.

6. Essential and Accidental Qualities.

A class name is given to things which possess similar qualities, and the name therefore suggests or signifies these qualities. The qualities which determine the formation of the class may be called *essential* qualities, since the things which do not possess them are not considered to belong to the class or to deserve the name. Besides these essential qualities, individuals within the class may possess other qualities, temporary or permanent, which are peculiar to themselves; these may be called *accidental* qualities, and it is these accidental qualities which are usually denoted by Adjectives when used with class names. The whole phrase formed by the Noun with its attendant Adjectives must then be looked upon as the complete expression of the notion intended. Thus if I say "White elephants are scarce," I say nothing about elephants in general, but speak only of white ones. In the absence of the word 'white' the Noun would not convey what I wish to say, for the idea in my mind would not be sufficiently defined.

We may notice that people do not usually carefully distinguish the characteristics of things which are to be considered essential in the sense given. *E.g.* I may say, "There goes a rat," because I see something which superficially resembles a true rat; but another person may answer, "No, it is not a rat," meaning that if the animal were strictly examined, it would be found to belong to another class of animals and to lack the essential characteristics which would justify our placing it in the rat class. The reader may profitably employ himself in trying to determine what are the qualities of common things which lead him to give them a particular name, and thus to place them in a particular class, without hesitation. He will probably be astonished to find how often his ideas of the qualities of things are far from clear.

7. The Definition of Subject or Object.

Students of Logic will see that the definition of a thing by use of Noun and Adjectives corresponds to the logical conception of genus and species. The essential qualities connoted by the Noun are the marks of the genus, while the accidental qualities denoted by the Adjective give the specific difference which marks the species within the genus. The complete expression of the subject or object notion by Noun and Adjective is a definition through *genus* and *differentia*. *E.g.* if we speak of the genus 'elephants' and add the qualitative word 'white', we for the time being create a sub-class of elephants, and 'white' is the word which specifies the characteristic distinguishing the sub-class.

(*N. B.*—By Subject or Object notion we mean the idea which the Subject or Object of the sentence is intended to convey.)

8. Functioning of Adjectives.

Since the addition of the Adjective has the effect of separating off a portion of the whole class denoted by the class name, the extent of the application of the name is, by the use of Adjectives, gradually limited, and such limitation may go on until the complete phrase can signify but one individual. *E.g.* 'Dogs', *i.e.*, all dogs ; 'black dogs', discarding all of other colour ; 'large black dogs,' omitting all of small or medium size ; 'the large black dog with a white spot on its nose,' *i.e.*, one only. We may show this as follows :—

- All dogs,
  - Other than black
  - Black,
    - Small
    - Large
      - With no white spot on nose.
      - With white spot on nose.

This process of limitation, in ordinary speech, goes on until the notion is sufficiently defined, and must go on up to

that point, if there is to be no misunderstanding. This work of limiting the extension of the application of the class name is the most general function of Adjectives. Many Adjectives do this by expressing a quality which belongs to a part of the class only, and contributes to the content or meaning of the complete phrase, but on the other hand, many express no quality at all and still limit the extension of the Noun. *E.g.*, we may say, " Men are rational beings " and also, "Some men are rational beings," in the latter sentence 'some' marks off a portion of the class men, but it does not add any quality additional to those signified by the word 'men.' Adjectives of this latter kind do not create new species or sub-classes but only mark off a portion of a group already defined or specified.

(See the special chapter on Adjectives.)

9. Extension and Intension of Nouns.

The distinction between the extension and intension of Nouns or class names is of great importance. In its fullest extent a Noun stands for or denotes all things of which it can be the name, and the determined limit of application in a given sentence is its *extension* or *denotation* in that sentence.

Class names are the result of perception that things fall into groups determined by the possession of similar qualities ; the qualities which are considered to warrant the inclusion of a thing in a class are the *intension* or *connotation* or *meaning* of the name.

10. Enlargements of the Subject.

The practice of treating Adjective words and clauses as 'Enlargements of the Subject' is undesirable, because the phrase must mean, either an increase in the number of words in the subject phrase and this has nothing to do with grammatical analysis ; or it must mean that the extension of the Noun is enlarged, which is contrary to fact ; or it must mean

that the idea expressed by the Subject is thereby enlarged, and this can hardly be true if, as we have seen, this notion is not properly expressed at all, until the Adjective has contributed its share to the definition. The meaning of the Subject phrase as a whole is no doubt increased when a qualitative Adjective is used, but the Adjective is necessary to the definition of the notion intended and this is not properly defined until the Adjective which indicates the specific difference is given. The agent or object of the activity expressed by the sentence is the actual person or thing performing the action or affected by it, and the complete name of that agent or object is all that is necessary to define it.

11. Adjective Modifiers.

The Adjective which assists to complete the expression of the Subject may itself be qualified by other words, phrases or clauses, expressing degree of intensity or other modification of the adjectival notion, but this point is best considered in connection with the Predicate. (See below.)

THE PREDICATE.

12. The Nature of the Predicate.

Every sentence states something regarding a given thing or idea, and to affirm or deny anything of such thing or idea is further to qualify it, *i.e.*, definitely to state whether some particular qualification, out of a multitude of possible qualifications, is true of it or not. The Predicate, *i.e.*, the word or words defining this notion is therefore essentially an Adjective, and may be any kind of word which can express a characteristic or determination of the thing denoted by the Subject; but since the purpose of predication is normally to convey new information, it may be expected that the sentence will usually assert or deny, not what is already given in or understood from the connotation of the Subject Noun, but

accidental or temporary determinations. When a sentence does assert an essential quality, *i.e.*, one implied in the Noun, the purpose of the speaker is the recalling to the mind of his hearer the fact that the notion predicated is implied in the Subject, and that he has forgotten it. If he did not know it before, the sentence for him asserts a new determination, and he learns what others usually understand by the name.

13. Predicative and Attributive use of Determinants.

If we make a judgment, such as that "the king is good", we add goodness to our conception of the king and having done so, can speak of him as 'a good king'. There thus arise two uses of Adjectives, the *Predicative* use, when the purpose of the sentence is to affirm or deny a certain qualification of the Subject, as "my pen is *bad*," and the *Attributive* use, when a quality previously predicatively affirmed or denied is used to assist in defining the Subject notion preparatory to predicating something else of it, as, "my *bad* pen is very troublesome."

The predicative use of Adjectives is logically, and in fact, prior to their use as attributes. We cannot justly use an epithet with a Noun, until we have judged that it rightly belongs to it, and such a judgment is expressed by a sentence of which the predicate expresses the determination afterwards accepted and used attributively. Apparent breaches of this are due to the fact that in the act of speaking we make silent judgments which warrant the attributive use. For example, I may say, "The broken table at which I am writing" although I may not previously have explicitly predicated 'broken' of the table. This is possible and legitimate, because my hearer at the moment is looking at the table and can see for himself that the epithet is appropriate, or he may on

my authority be willing to accept the implied judgment. This use of attributes before they have been verified by an act of judgment is the source of what are called 'question-begging epithets.'

14. Appositive use of determinants.

There is a third use of Adjectives (words, phrases or clauses) *viz.*, the *appositive* use. An Adjective is said to be used appositively when it introduces new matter into the definition of the Subject or Object notion in an explanatory way, *i. e.* as a sort of subsidiary predicate, the assertion of which is not the main object of the speaker. E.g. in "George, the king of England, visited India," 'the King of England' is a phrase qualifying 'George' and explanatory of the word, but the main purpose of the sentence is to say that he visited India. The phrase is not attributive, because the determination has not been previously made, but is added in order to make clear which individual of those named George is intended.

15. The Import of Propositions.

Every sentence is the expression of a judgment and must reflect the nature of the judgment. Judgments are of four kinds: of existence, co-existence, sequence or resemblance; in other words, a sentence states that a thing does or does not exist; that the quality denoted by the predicate does or does not co-exist with, or cohere in, the thing named by the subject; that the predicate does, or does not, follow on a previous condition as an activity arising from the subject; or that the thing named by the subject does, or does not, resemble the thing denoted by the predicate. Every sentence expresses one or other of these relations, although the fact is obscured by the infinite number of possible predicates and the numerous possible forms of expression. A simple sentence can express but one of these relations. The

I cannot understand how he can do it.
S. V. P.

only apparent exception is the sentence which is a verbal proposition, *i.e.*, one wherein the predicate is another name for the subject, and such sentences express judgments of the co-existence of names, *e.g.*, "The King of England is the Emperor of India." ......

Examples of the various forms of judgment mentioned are :—

Of Existence,

"There is a first Cause of the world."

Of Co-existence,

"This book has blue covers," *i.e.* blueness of cover co-exists with the other qualities of the book.

Of Sequence,

"The pedlar has left the compound," *i.e.* leaving the bungalow is an activity of the pedlar following on a previous activity or condition.

Of Resemblance,

"The sea resembled a sheet of glass."

16. Adjective Predicates.

The main predicate notion may be expressed by an Adjective, a Noun or a Verb. We have already treated of the functioning of Adjectives attributively, and shown how this use arises from a prior predicative use; they are of course used to express the predicate notion and their definition may quite well be the definition of all predicates, since all predicates qualify or determine the Subject. Adjectives expressive of qualities are used to express judgments of co-existence, since they form the predicates of sentences which state that a quality co-exists with, or inheres in, a thing. Adjectives expressive of quantity are usually found as predicates in propositions expressing judgments of the co-existence of a number of things with the whole of real

existence, and thus approximate to judgments of simple existence. Participles and inflected tense forms of the Verb are usually found in judgments of sequence, but merge into judgments of co-existence when the activity comes to be looked upon as a permanent or fixed condition, as for example in the case of sentences with a Perfect Passive Participle.

17. Noun Predicates.

When a Noun is used to express the predicate notion, it is the qualities connoted by the Noun which are really asserted or denied of the subject. For example when it is said, "The man is a gardener," it is meant that the individual in question joins the characteristics of a gardener to those of a man ; to say, " He is a very Solomon " is to say, "He is as wise as Solomon was." There are but few exceptions to the rule that, when the predicate is a Noun, the emphasis falls upon the connotation, and this is but to say that the subject, besides the qualities connoted by its own name, also possesses those which characterises the thing of which the predicate Noun is the name, and it is the connotation of names which makes possible their use as predicates. When the predicate Noun is a Proper Noun, it is some quality empirically associated with the person or thing named, but not strictly connoted by the name, which gives it its requisite adjectival quality.

18. Complements of the Predicate.

On the grounds stated, we may say that the practice of treating Noun and Adjective Predicates as 'Complements of the Predicate' is unnecessary and undesirable. The practice arises from failure to distinguish the copulative from the predicative functioning of Verbs. The determination affirmed or denied of the subject is, in such cases, obviously expressed by the Noun or Adjective, and not by the Verb

'to be', of which these are said to be the complements ; and in a sentence like " He is tall", it is the Adjective and not the Verb which can be used attributively. This will be better understood presently.

19. Verb Predicates.

These require more consideration. Judgments, as stated above, are of four kinds, and perhaps the majority of sentences are statements regarding the activities or changes of things, *i.e.*, express judgments of sequence. Words significant of activity form a special class to which the name of Verbs has been appropriated, but, since the purpose of the sentence is to express determinations or qualifications of the subject, and both activities and qualities serve this purpose equally well, Verb Predicates should be looked upon as forming a special sub-class of predicates. In so far as they express the predicate notion we may justly call them Adjectives of Action, and this is what Participles, the forms of the Verb which express the predicate notion purely, really are. Participles and Adjectives function in the same way and their difference lies in their significance.

20. The Specific Function of Verbs.

It is commonly asserted that there can be no sentence without a Verb, and this is true, but not in the sense usually intended. An inflected tense of the Verb serves a double purpose in that it supplies the adjectival predicate notion and also acts as the expression of the act of judgment, *i.e.* as a Copula. In the so-called Compound Tenses the two functions are separated ; that part of the Verb which expresses the predicate notion becomes a Participle, *i.e.* an Adjective of action, while the act of predication is performed by the Copula, *i.e.*, the Verb 'to be' or some other of similar force. It is the Participle which is used attributively. It

is therefore right to say that every sentence must contain a Verb, yet not in the sense that the predicate notion must always be expressed by a Verb, *i.e.*, by a word signifying activity, or that every sentence should express an activity of the subject, but in the sense that there must be in every sentence some expression of the act of judgment, and this will be performed by a Verb. Divested of this function the word expressing activity becomes another Part of Speech. The just ground then for making the Verb a separate part of Speech lies in the fact that it performs this copulative function. The definition of a Verb as a word expressing activity is insufficient and erroneous, for Participles and Nouns are included in this definition ; the true definition is that the Verb is the word of the sentence which indicates the act of judgment or predication.

21. Adverbs or Adjective Modifiers.

The notion expressed by the main predicate word is expressed in a general way, and in order that the determination of the Subject which the Predicate denotes may be adequately defined, it is often necessary to indicate various modifications, such as the time, manner, degree, etc., of the main predicate notion, by the addition of words, phrases or clauses ; these are ADVERBS or *Adjective Modifiers.* Since all predicates can be used attributively and appositively, Adverbs will also express modifications of attributive and appositive words. Adverbs then are words which denote modification of any quality or activity which is capable of modification, *i.e.* anything expressed by Verbs, Adjectives or Adverbs. Adjectives denote qualifications or determinations perceived to belong to a thing of which the Noun is the name ; Adverbs express modifications of these qualifications or determinations. The only exception is seen in the case of Noun predicates as in " He is a little pope ; " here the word 'little'

would usually be parsed as an Adjective, but when we remember that the Noun is used connotatively, it will be seen that the sentence really means, "He resembles the pope in a small degree," and the Adjective approaches nearly to the nature of an Adverb. The following examples exhibit the Adverb in its three positions :—

"He is running *swiftly*."	With predicative word.
"The *swiftly* running man."	With attributive word.
"The man, running *swiftly*, etc.	With appositive word.

22. The Object.

The activity expressed by a word of suitable meaning, whether it be a Noun, a Participle or a Verb, may take effect upon some *Object*, and since this object must be something which can suffer such action, it must be something of which a Noun is the name. What can be a subject Noun may also be an object Noun and be determined or qualified by Adjectives in the same manner. The object Noun will differ from the subject Noun only by some mark which indicates its special relation to the word of activity. Since the object Noun more particularly defines the general notion of activity expressed by the Verb or Participle, it is obviously adverbial in its functioning. For example, I may say "The dog was eating", and the hearer's attention is directed to the act of eating ; by adding the object Noun 'a bone' the general idea of 'eating' is restricted and made more definite.

23. Prepositions.

In order to make up Adjective and Adverb phrases, small words are used with Nouns to define the relation of other words in the sentence to these Nouns. When these phrases function as qualifications of Nouns in the sentence, they are Adjectives, and when they function as qualifiers of Adjectives or other predicate words they are Adverbs. For

example in "The boys in my garden are picking apples," the phrase 'in my garden' is an Adjective phrase qualifying 'boys.' In "I rode on a horse yesterday," the phrase 'on a horse' qualifies 'rode' and is an Adverb. The small words used in such phrases to indicate the relation of the Noun to other words, as 'in' or 'on' in the examples given, are Prepositions. (See the section on the Cases.)

(*N. B.*—By phrase we mean a collocation of words expressing a single idea. Such a phrase is of value only as it is woven into a sentence or clause containing other terms to which it can be related.)

24. The Complete Expression of the Predicate.

As in the case of the Subject, so too in the case of the Predicate, all that goes to define the notion intended must be looked upon as part of the Predicate and not as an extension of it. For example, if I say, "I came home in a motor," the idea I wish to convey is not that of 'coming' simply, but that of 'coming home in a motor,' and in the absence of the adverbial modification of the main predicate notion the idea would not be fully expressed. The intention of a speaker is very often to emphasise the adverbial element in opposition to the predicate notion unmodified or modified in a different way, and the addition of an Adverb, which actually limits the extent of the application of the general notion, can hardly be rightly described by calling it an extension of the predicate.

In accordance with this we must say that when a predicate includes an adverbial element, this element must accompany the main predicate word to the attributive position, which is to say, that the judgment must be utilised as it is made, or we run the risk of assuming generally what may be true only in a particular reference. The act of judgment

warranting the attributive use of a qualification is often sufficiently indicated by the main predicate word, but this is because the modification of the notion having been recently stated, it is present to the mind of the speaker and hearer and understood. For example, I may say, "the train was guarded by soldiers," and then "the guarded train was loaded with ammunition"; my hearers will understand that I mean 'guarded by soldiers.'

The expression of the predicate is the very purpose of the sentence, and the predicate is therefore seldom omitted except in answers to questions which already suggest it. The most common case in English is the omission of a verb signifying motion before a Preposition which also suggests motion as in, "Out of my way," *i.e.* "Move out of my way."

THE COPULA.

25. The nature of the Copula.

The Copula is the word or sign which does the work of predication, affirming or denying that the predicate notion is true of the subject notion, and usually stating something regarding the particular form of such affirmation or negation (Mood), and the time reference of the sentence.

When an inflected tense of the verb predicate is used, the Copula is involved in the form and indicated by the terminal inflections; when it receives separate expression, it is by means of a Verb, the Verb 'to be' or some other capable of conveying the necessary meaning. In English the Copula is usually distinct from the Participle which expresses the predicate notion only. Since the Copula is seldom sufficiently considered in grammar and much of the confusion in the science is due to this, we justify more at length the position we adopt.

It is in connection with Greek, Latin and Sanskrit that grammar has been most studied ; these languages are highly inflectional and make small use of forms wherein the Copula appears as a distinct element. The common practice has been to treat these latter forms as paraphrases of inflected tenses rather than as analytical of them, with the natural consequence that the Copula has not received sufficient consideration.

It is probable that in the beginnings of language the juxtaposition of two terms was sufficient to suggest their combination in a judgment, and we still meet with this phenomenon in the speech of foreigners using a language of which they know little, and in the first utterances of children. This is not the place to consider a problem which belongs to philology, but in the inflected languages we find terminal letters or syllables expressive of Voice, Mood, Time, Phase of Action, Gender, Number and Person appended to the base of the Verb which conveys the main predicate notion. With the passing of time these terminations gradually wore away, and for them were substituted small words, until, as in English, the substitution is almost complete, and in this way arises a Copula separate from the Participle.

N. B.—It should be understood that the true function of the Copula is to determine the *logical quality* of the sentence (See Chap. II.) and not the *time* of the sentence. This latter signification is really adverbially qualificatory of the predicate.

26. The ordinary Copulas.

The Copulas in most common use are the Verbs 'to be' and 'to become', and to these, for the Western languages, we may add the verb 'to have'. As verbs expressing the predicate notion, 'to be' means 'to exist' and 'to have' means to

possess, but in their use as Copulas they lose their significance as predicates and become expressive of the act of predication only, and this latter use must be carefully distinguished from the former. When words are used purely as Copulas, the predicate notion is indicated by another word, although the Copula contains time qualifications of that notion. For example, in the sentence "He was good", the word 'was' does the work of affirmation and also expresses past time; this expression of time is adverbial of 'good'; the goodness spoken of is a goodness of the past, while the act of judgment is a present act.

27. Copulas with three kinds of Predicates.

In accordance with the preceding remarks we should treat the following sentences as identical in syntactical form:—"He is writing," "He is lazy," "He is a sportsman"; 'he' is the subject, 'is' is the copula, and 'writing', 'lazy' and 'sportsman' are equally predicates; the differences of these latter consisting in difference of significance and not in difference of functioning; all are equally subject determinants affirmed by the copula 'is'. We thus get rid of the dubious practice of treating 'lazy' and 'sportsman' as complements of the predicate, a procedure which makes 'is' a notional verb, and makes the sentence expressive of existence and co-existence at the same time, forming in fact a contracted sentence, although it is the simplest form of sentence possible. We may cite as a further instance, "He was a student," "He was studying," "He was studious," the first of these sentences obviously carries the most meaning, but it would be difficult to justify an analysis based upon functioning which did not put the three predicates on an equal footing.

28. The Logical Analysis of the Sentence.

The primary analysis of the sentence is, that which resolves it into the three main elements of Subject, Predicate

and Copula, and this analysis is logical rather than grammatical, and displays the sentence as in accord with the logical law that a proposition expressing a single judgment must relate two and only two terms. Grammatical analysis proper begins when we consider the ways in which these primary elements are given expression, and this analysis gives us the Parts of Speech, that is, the kinds of words necessary for the work required and the inflections to which they are subjected in the process of indicating all necessary relations. In accordance with this we treat of Dependent clauses as what they are, *viz.*, equivalents of Nouns, Adjectives and Adverbs, although a secondary analysis may be applied to them, since they contain all the elements necessary to a complete sentence.

We present the foregoing thus :—

I. THE SUBJECT, built up of:—

(*a*) The Noun (or its substitute the Pronoun) specifying the main notion or thing ;

(*b*) The Adjective (or Noun or Participle) used attributively or appositively to determine the main notion more particularly ;

(*c*) The Adverb, defining more closely the attributive or appositive determination.

II. THE PREDICATE, built up of :—

(*a*) The Adjective, Noun or Verb expressing the main predicate notion ;

(*b*) The Adverb, (or in the case of Noun predicates, the Adjective) defining the predicate notion more closely ;

(*c*) The Object Noun, also assisting to define or limit the activity more closely, and accompanied by its own determinants as in (I).

III. THE COPULA, expressed by :—

(*a*) The inflection of the Verb or by special Verbs ;

(*b*) These further defined by Modal Adverbs.

N. B.—For Nouns, Adjectives or Adverbs, phrases or clauses may be substituted in all positions.

We may give variant expression to this by saying that every sentence must contain at least :—

(*a*) The name of the thing spoken of, *i.e.*, a Noun or its equivalent ;

(*b*) The name of some qualification or determinant, *i.e.*, an Adjective ;

(*c*) An expression of the act of judgment, *i.e.*, a Verb.

In an inflected tense form (*b*) and (*c*) are contained in one form, and in some languages, when the Nominative of the sentence is a Pronoun, the tense form includes this as well.

29. The Parts of Speech.

To the Parts of Speech mentioned in the preceding paragraph, *viz.*, the Noun, the Pronoun, the Adjective, the Verb and the Adverb, must be added the Preposition used with Nouns to form adjectival and adverbial phrases, and also two others, the Interjection and the Conjunction. The Interjection is a word expressive of an emotion or feeling and stands outside the organised sentence. (See Chap. XIII). Conjunctions are words used to link together successive judgments. (See Chap. XIV.)

Some grammarians make the Articles a distinct Part of Speech ; others do not. The section on the Articles may be studied, and if our view that they exercise a peculiar office is correct, they may be looked upon as forming a class by themselves. The usual treatment of them does not properly distinguish them from Adjectives.

(For specimens of Analysis see the end of the book.)

30. Inflection.

In what follows we more particularly consider the manner in which the Parts of Speech perform their various functions in the sentence. This work is partly done by means of inflections of the words themselves, and we make a few remarks regarding inflection generally, before giving a detailed explanation of their nature and force.

By inflection we mean the modification of the form of a word either by the adding to it of prefixes or suffixes, or by making changes within the body of the word. Of these modifications, some convey distinct meaning, while others but repeat something already stated, and are made with a view to producing agreement or concord of the modified word with some other word in the sentence. Inflections of the latter kind are almost entirely confined to Pronouns, Adjectives and Verbs. (See Chap. VIII.).

In highly inflected languages, wherein concords are many and elaborate, the fact that the inflections indicate the grammatical relations of the words inflected makes it possible to write the words of a sentence in almost any order without danger of misunderstanding, but this facility is dearly purchased at the cost of simplicity and freedom in other directions. The most striking instance of the needless character of many inflections is that presented by Adjectives, which in some languages are inflected for Gender, Number and Case, and in several forms of declension, in order to show that they qualify a particular Noun. All this elaborate and, to a foreigner, difficult machinery, is dispensed with in English by the simple expedient of putting the uninflected Adjective close to the Noun. Verbs are inflected for other purposes besides concord, but the inflections for Gender, Number and Person serve this purpose and at the same time mark the Copula. Since the Gender, Number and Person of the

Subject Noun are given in its enunciation, there is nothing gained by repeating this information in the Verb, and all that is really needed is one distinct form to mark the Copula. The superfluous character of these inflections for concord is sufficiently proved by the fact that they have almost disappeared from English, and their absence is not felt.

It is otherwise with Pronouns which are substitutes for Nouns and whose value depends upon their exhibiting their reference to some definite antecedent. There may be several Nouns in the sentence or clause preceding that in which the Pronoun appears, and the inflections of the Pronoun usually enable the speaker to indicate which of these Nouns is the antecedent to it.

How it came about that this intricate system of unnecessary concords arose is a problem for philology to solve and therefore beyond our province. The student of a language must not suppose that because many concords are unnecessary, he can ignore them ; customary usage must be followed, and the ear must be satisfied. A false concord is as disagreeable to those familiar with a language as a mistake in logical sequence, although the objection to false concords has not been powerful enough to prevent the disappearance of many of the inflections for concord. The change from a multiplicity of concords to a condition where almost none are left, as displayed in the English tongue, has not been due to deliberate rejection, but is the result of the contact of one language with another.

PART II

CHAPTER IV.

THE NOUN.

1. Definition of Nouns.

A Noun is the name of anything which can be made an object of thought, or concerning which a statement can be made, but there are many such possible objects to which no name has been assigned, and when these are spoken of, they must be indicated by a descriptive phrase or clause. The available supply of names is determined by practical needs; when a notion is so commonly referred to as to make repeated description tiresome, a name is invented to distinguish it or the class to which it belongs, and we may look upon Common Nouns as representing man's classification of the things most necessary to him. It is in Proper Nouns only that we approximate to the position of having a distinct name for each nameable thing, but in Proper Nouns we lose the advantage arising from the fact that Common Nouns carry a connotation with them and are therefore descriptive, which Proper Nouns are not.

2. Nomenclature.

The Noun with its determinants, if these are required, is the complete expression of the actual thing intended and the real logical Subject or Object of the sentence. In order that we may not confuse the conception of the logical subject with the grammatical relations of the words used to express it, we propose to call the Noun of the subject phrase the Nominative and that of the object phrase the Accusative of the sentence. The Nominative will then be the actual name

of the thing upon which the judgment is exercised, and concerning which a statement is made, and will determine the concords of the sentence as a whole, while the Accusative will determine the concords of its own determinants. Other relations of Nouns will be designated by the accepted names of the Cases, and we may use Case names to indicate these relations, even when they are actually expressed by Prepositions or receive no distinct expression at all.

3. The Classification of Nouns.

The most useful classification of Nouns is that which divides them into :—

(a) General or Class Names.

Those which are applicable to a plurality of things.

(b) Singular or Individual Names.

Those which are restricted to one individual thing.

It is this classification which is implied in what has been said and has yet to be said, regarding the force of Adjectives in determining the extension and intension of Nouns, and which governs the use of the Articles.

The classification usually found in books on grammar is faulty in that it does not rest upon a single ground of division, but it is useful in that it serves to indicate differences which have grammatical results. According to this classification Nouns are divided into Common, Collective, Abstract, Material and Proper Nouns.

(a) Common Nouns.

These are names which are applicable to all members of a class of things on the ground of their possessing similar qualities. Common Nouns are therefore *general and connotative* names, connoting the qualities which determine the formation of the class. Such Nouns are *bird, table, worker, animal, etc.*

(b) Collective Nouns.

A Collective Noun is a peculiar species of Common Noun and therefore a general and connotative name. It is the name of an aggregate formed of a number of similar individuals or things, *e.g.* a regiment, *i.e.*, a body of soldiers ; a library, *i.e.*, a collection of books. These Nouns must not be confused with those which signify a thing composed of a number of dissimilar parts ; *e.g.*, 'body' is not a collective noun, although the body is made up of a number of distinct parts. Collective Nouns are peculiar in this that when themselves in the singular number, they may be followed by plural verbs. This happens when the emphasis falls upon the individuals forming the aggregate. E.g., we may say, "The Committee thinks this," *i.e.*, the committee as a whole, or "The Committee think this," *i.e.*, it is the opinion of members individually. In accordance with this a singular Collective Noun may be referred to by a plural Pronoun.

(c) Abstract Nouns.

An Abstract Noun is the name of a particular quality considered apart from the thing in which it is manifested. It primarily expresses one quality considered as a whole and is then a *singular* and *connotative* name, but it can be treated as a general name when particular examples of the quality named by it are considered. E.g. in "Covetousness is a mean vice," 'covetousness' is a singular name and is thought of as one whole ; in "John's covetousness led him astray", the covetousness of John is distinguished from that which others exhibit, and the name has become a general name.

(d) Material Nouns.

A Material Noun is one which denotes the homogeneous mass or material of which an object consists, as *wood, glass, iron, etc.* Such names are ***singular*** names, but they become general when particular specimens or kinds are distinguished, as, "The iron of Sweden is famous." Such names connote the qualities peculiar to the substance named. Words of this class are often used as common Nouns as "He broke all the *glasses.*"

(e) Proper Nouns.

A proper Noun is the name of an individual person, place or thing, as John, Madrid, The Andes, etc. A true Proper Noun carries with it no suggestion of any particular quality, *i.e.*, it has no such connotation as would be understood by a hearer who knew nothing of the individual named by it. At the same time those who know the bearer of the name must have some definite idea of its appearance or characteristics, and when these are known to many, may form such a sort of empirical connotation as will make it possible to call things possessing similar characteristics by the same name. For example, I may say, "He is quite a Falstaff" meaning "He is very stout ;" 'Falstaff' has then become a general name and is treated as such, but the idea of stoutness which warrants such treatment arises from experience and is not part of the connotation of the name. Proper Nouns are also used as general names when several persons bearing the same name are spoken of, as "the Smiths and the Robertsons." Strictly speaking then, a Proper Noun is a ***singular non-connotative*** name, but it may be employed as a general and connotative name.

We may present these results as follows :—

<table>
<tr><td colspan="3">NOUNS.</td></tr>
<tr><td>General and Connotative</td><td>{ Common Nouns
Collective Nouns</td><td></td></tr>
<tr><td>Singular and Connotative</td><td>{ Abstract Nouns
Material Nouns</td><td rowspan="2">} These in certain circumstances become general names</td></tr>
<tr><td>Singular and Non-connotative,</td><td>Proper Nouns</td></tr>
</table>

N. B.—General names cannot be non-connotative for their generality rests upon their connotation ; if they were not connotative they would not be general names.

4. Functioning of Nouns.

The Noun can function in the following ways and in these only.

(*a*) As SUBJECT NOUN.

" *The* war *is a terrible calamity.*"

" Wine *is a mocker.*"

" *The* ship *was driven by turbines.*"

(*b*) As OBJECT NOUN after a word expressing activity;

" *Bring me some* paper."

" *Excess of rain destroyed the* crops."

(*c*) As QUALIFICATORY of another Noun ;

Predicatively,

" *My clerk was a* Brahmin."

" *Patience is a great* virtue."

Appositively,

" *Gregory the* Pope *was a great statesman.*"

" *Charlemagne the* Emperor *founded the kingdom of France.*"

Attributively,

" *The* town *clock stopped in the night.*"

"*The* street *lamps give little light.*"

Such Nouns are really Adjectives.

(*d*) With Prepositions to form adjectival and adverbial phrases.

"*The boys were fishing in the* river."

"*The man in the* boat *could not row.*"

(Case forms are used instead of these.)

(*e*) With Prepositions to form prepositional and conjunctional phrases.

"*In* spite *of the rain he remained out of doors.*"

"*He came by another road in* order *that he might avoid the crowd.*"

INFLECTION OF NOUNS.

5. Roots and Bases.

In the discharge of their functions, Nouns are subject to inflection to express modifications of significance not indicated by the bare forms. These inflections are for Gender, Number, Person and Case, and the explanations here given in connection with Nouns refer to inflections of other classes of words for the same purposes.

When in the process of inflection terminations are appended to a Noun, the form of the Noun is often modified to admit of the more euphonious attachment of the terminations. To the bare unmodified form of the word we give the name 'root', and to the form modified in the manner stated we give the name 'base' to indicate that it is a sort of foundation upon which the inflected forms are built up.

6. Gender.

The term Gender is employed to denote the fact that Nouns fall into groups, each of which requires that dependent words shall exhibit a particular concord. These groups

are usually three in number and are named Masculine, Feminine and Neuter, but in some languages but two such groups, Masculine and Feminine, are distinguished. In English, it is the sex of the thing named which determines the class to which a Noun belongs, and what pronoun or general terminations shall be employed in connection with it; the names of males are Masculine, those of females are Feminine, while the names of inanimate things, or of animate things when the idea of sex is in abeyance, are of Neuter Gender. This system is known as *Natural Gender* and it is the most convenient, because the groups are easily distinguishable on reasonable grounds.

In cases where the idea of sex is continually present, it is usually found that feminine words are distinct in form from their corresponding masculines, as *brother, sister, bull, cow*; but many feminines are formed by the application of special forms to masculine words, as *lion, lioness*; *administrator, administratrix.* When neither of these resources avail, an adjective signifying sex is employed with the Noun as *he-goat, she-goat*; *a male and female jackal.* This makes it clear that inflection for gender, when employed to modify the meaning of a Noun, is an adjectival modification of the primary meaning. In cases where the Noun denotes a thing of either sex, and it is desired to define the sex, an appropriate Pronoun will do the work required, *e.g.*, if we speak of a cat as 'he' the sex of the animal in question is at once defined; if we speak of it as 'it' we show that we speak with no reference to sex.

The rational basis of Natural Gender tends to make it appear as the normal kind of gender, but this is far from being the case. Natural Gender is found in but few languages and is the outcome of the contact of one language with another. This often makes it impossible to preserve an older system

of gender owing to the difficulty of assigning imported words to the classes already existing in the native language. The system of gender now in vogue in English is due to the influx of Norman-French words into Anglo-Saxon. Anglo-Saxon Nouns denoting a particular thing were often of one gender, while the corresponding Norman-French term was of another, and natural gender was the outcome of attempts to solve the difficulty thus occasioned.

In the majority of languages the same three classes are found, and are given the same names, but the groups are determined, not by the sex of the thing named, but by the form of the Nouns, and in the study of these languages it is better to pay little attention to sex and to treat gender as a matter of concord. This system we call *Grammatical Gender*. It is possible that in the early stages of language the groups thus formed were fairly regular and well-defined, but this regularity has long since disappeared, and in most cases it has become impossible to give rules of much practical value for determining gender. The gender of Nouns in such languages is best learnt by repeating with the Noun a word displaying the right concord.

Marathi presents an interesting phenomenon in this regard. A few Nouns are inflected for three genders, and the masculine form then signifies what is big and strong, the feminine what is delicate or slender, while the neuter form is expressive of contempt or depreciation.

7. Personification.

A fruitful source of exceptions in gender is the use of the figure Personification, *i.e.*, the treating of inanimate things or abstract ideas as if they were persons, e.g. "O death, where is thy sting?" The gender then attributed to such personifications may be such as to follow a more ancient

grammatical gender, or may be due to a wish on the part of the speaker to associate certain ideas with the object personified. The same name may be treated, now as masculine and now as feminine, according as the speaker desires to suggest qualities which are looked upon as characteristically masculine or feminine.

8. Number.

Nouns are inflected to distinguish three Numbers, *i.e.*, to show how many individuals are intended. These numbers are :—

(*a*) The Singular, when the Noun indicates but one thing ;

(*b*) The Dual, when it indicates two things ;

(*c*) The Plural, when it indicates a plurality of things.

The Singular.

This may be either the simple and unmodified form of the Noun, or it may be distinguished by a termination which denotes at once the Gender, the Number and the Case. The Singular is usually treated as the form from which the others are derived by inflection, but in the classical languages the Singular, like the other numbers, is supposed to be formed from the base by inflection.

The Dual.

This number is also distinguished by peculiar terminations which may also mark the Gender and the Case. In the languages wherein it is found, as in Greek, Hebrew and Sanskrit, it is generally used of things which go naturally in pairs, but the plural sometimes takes its place, and the rules of concord are often broken. When the Dual is not found the Plural takes its place.

The Plural.

The Plural is formed by the addition of a special termination to the singular or to the base, as *horses*, or by internal modification of the word as *man*, *men*. The termination marking the plural number may also mark the Gender and the Cases as in Greek and Latin, etc. The modern languages of India, which retain the Cases, usually have but one set of case terminations for both singular and plural, and distinguish the plural number by a special modification of the base, antecedent to the application of the case terminations. Many Adjectives signify number, and when such Adjectives are employed with Nouns which are themselves plural, the same fact is really stated twice, and when the Adjective too is inflected for number, three times. With such Adjectives the modification for number might therefore be dispensed with, and this shows that inflection for number effects an adjectival qualification of the Noun. We might logically say 'two man' 'many man' just as we say 'three hare,' 'four brace of partridge' in sporting phraseology.

It is to be noted that many apparent plurals are treated as singulars, and singulars as plurals; the actual nature of the notion named and not the form of the Noun usually determines the concords of the sentence.

In this connection we may make the general remark that we are concerned with the facts of grammar which are common to language generally. The elements peculiar to a language are mainly its words and the forms of inflection employed, and these must be learnt from the grammar of the particular language

studied. The student may expect to find two and sometimes three Numbers and they will be indicated as described above, but the actual forms employed will vary from one language to another.

9. Person.

By Person we mean the relation of the thing named by a Noun or Pronoun in a sentence to the speaker of it. When the Pronoun indicates the speaker himself, it is said to be in the First Person ; when the Noun or Pronoun indicates the person addressed, it is said to be in the Second Person, and when the Noun or Pronoun indicates some other person or thing, it is said to be in the Third Person. Person in Nouns is not definitely marked, but Nouns in the Vocative case are in the second person, and Nouns in apposition to Pronouns of the first or second are in the first or second person accordingly ; all other Nouns are in the third person. The person of Nouns is a matter of importance because Pronouns and Verbs must agree in person with their antecedents and nominatives respectively. Although a Noun is thus usually in the third person, it is necessary to remember that the person of all Pronouns is determined by their antecedents, and a Noun must therefore be in some person.

CASES OF NOUNS.

10. The Functioning of Case Forms.

Inflection for Case is the modification of the form of a Noun by the addition of terminations in order to show the relation of other words in the sentence to this Noun. These relations remain and may be expressed by the names of the Cases even when the distinctive form has disappeared. It is the functioning which gives rise to Cases, and we are concerned primarily with function and not with form. This

latter remark may be given a wider application ; it is sometimes not properly realised that a functioning persists, although the special form which indicated it no longer exists.

In the early days of the Aryan languages, the Case forms, assisted by Adverbs prefixed to Verbs, seem to have fulfilled all requirements in this direction, but as thought developed and greater exactitude of expression was demanded, the Adverbs became detached from the Verbs and, as Prepositions, came to be used with Nouns instead of Case forms, and with more remote and metaphorical meanings.

This tendency to substitute Prepositions for the Case forms is well exemplified in classical Greek, wherein the idiomatic use of the Cases is very complex. During the period of transition, while the practice of employing Prepositions for the Case forms gradually extended, the habit of using certain Cases to express certain relations still persisted, with the consequence that the idea conveyed by the Preposition is often repeated in the Case form, and this gives rise to the idea that Prepositions govern Cases, but there is no real governance, and the use of particular Cases with Prepositions in modern languages is largely the survival of a tradition. When the Preposition takes over the meaning of the Case and thus renders the Case form unnecessary, the Noun should be in the form most appropriate to its denuded condition, *i.e.*, the bare root form, the form expressing no relation at all, and it can hardly be said that this is due to governance.

When the Case form after a Preposition has a meaning distinct from that of the Preposition, then the two meanings may be treated as if they arose from two Prepositions or from a compound Case form. Prepositions in Greek are said sometimes to govern two or more Cases, but it is better to express

this fact by saying that the Preposition is of such meaning that it can combine with several Cases to produce distinct meanings; the Case expressing one relation and the Preposition another although a kindred one. The section on the Prepositions must be studied in this connection.

In some cases Prepositions are really forms of Nouns in an Oblique case and they then require that the Noun with which they are employed should be in the Genitive Case. Such Prepositions are really the equivalents of phrases, e. g. *Ghar-ki age,* in front of the house, i. e, before the house.

11. Confusion of Cases:

In early times the Case forms stood for clearly defined relations and still do so to a large extent in the modern Indian languages, but owing to the loss of some Case forms and the transference of their functions to others much confusion has arisen. The student of Latin or Greek, wherein this is most apparent, may expect to find that the correct use of the Cases will constitute one of his chief difficulties. It is in this department of grammar that much of what is known as idiom will be found. It is not to be thought that such variety of idiom has no logical basis; it is the outcome of a possibility to be met with elsewhere, the possibility that a particular relation may be looked at in more than one way, and be expressed accordingly. The endeavour to realise what these possibilities are and to see how they arise is a valuable exercise, and should be made whenever it is seen that a form of speech does not mirror the customary thought. He who has learnt to do this with facility has gained a mental aptitude of no small value.

12. The original Cases.

The original Indo-European language seems to have had nine Cases, the Nominative, the Vocative, the Accusative,

the Genitive, the Ablative, the Dative, the Locative, the Instrumentative, and the Sociative. Sanskrit, and many of the Indian languages, have eight, omitting the last-named, but Marathi distinctly exhibits a special Sociative termination which is usually regarded as belonging to the Instrumentative. Latin has six Cases, the Instrumentative and the Locative being absent, and their functions being performed by the Ablative and the Dative or by Prepositions. Greek has but five, the Ablative too being absent and its work being done by the Genitive. In the earlier Teutonic languages, the Vocative as a special form disappears, leaving but four case forms in the northern European languages. With a few negligible exceptions the only surviving case form in English is the Genitive of Possession; the Nominative, the Vocative, the Accusative and the Dative are alike in form and exhibit no special mark of case. With this gradual loss of case forms has gone on the substitution for them of Prepositions, and if the view that case terminations are remnants of older Prepositions be correct, we may say that in this matter language has returned to the point from which it set out.

We may here remark that the loss of an inflection of significant meaning must not be taken to mean the loss of the power to express what that inflection signified. It may be questioned whether any facility of speech which meets a real need is ever lost in a derivative language, and the student must make it his business to ascertain how the work of the discarded form is carried on. Where no substitute seems to have been provided, the required meaning may be given by emphasis, by the tone of the voice, by a different form of sentence, or be gathered from the context.

13. The Import of the original Cases.

The following are the fundamental meanings of the Cases :—

The Nominative is the case of *the subject Noun.*

The Vocative is the case of *the person addressed.*

The Accusative is the case of *the Object of the activity* and of '*motion towards.*'

The Genitive is the case of *that to which a thing belongs.*

The Ablative is the case of *separation, that from which a thing is taken or from which it moves.*

The Dative is the case of *the remoter Object* or *that for which anything is done.*

The Locative is the case of *the limits within which anything is done.*

The Instrumentative is the case of *the Instrument* or *Agent by which anything is done.*

The Sociative is the case of *the accompanying circumstance.*

14. The Oblique Case.

A study of these meanings will show that, of the last seven cases, while the Genitive is in close connection with the Noun and adjectival in force, the remainder express relations which are primarily adverbial. The adjectival nature of the Genitive most clearly appears in the Indian languages, wherein the termination is inflected for gender and number as other Adjectives are. We may also cite the case of Hebrew which is very poor in Adjectives, and supplies the want by the use of Nouns in what is the equivalent of the Genitive case, *i.e.*, in the absolute form. When the genitive bears an adverbial meaning, as it often does in Greek, we may suppose that we are dealing with a relation which was originally expressed by an adverbial case.

It is convenient to have a special name for those Cases which function in a dependent manner, *i.e.*, as Adjectives or Adverbs. In accordance with the common practice we call them the Oblique Cases ; they include all but the Nominative and the Vocative. It would be quite consistent to call the Genitive an Adjective and the other oblique cases Adverbs, and much confusion would be avoided by so doing.

We discuss the Cases in detail, but only with a view to giving a general idea of the work done by them and their equivalents. A detailed account of all their uses would demand more space than can here be afforded. Our purpose is served if the reader gains a clear understanding of their functions.

15. The Nominative Case.

The Nominative is the case of the subject Noun and of Nouns agreeing with it by rules of concord. It is found in the following positions :—

(*a*) As subject Noun of the sentence,

"*The* clouds *are high.*"

"*The uprooted* tree *was taken away.*"

"Men *must work and* women *must weep.*"

(*b*) As attributive of the subject Noun,

"*The* town *clock needs repair.*"

"*My* saddle *girths were badly worn.*"

(*c*) As appositive of the subject Noun,

"*Akbar, the Moghul* Emperor, *was a great statesman.*"

"*Beethoven, the great* musician, *was blind in his old age.*"

(*d*) As predicative of the subject Noun,

"*The prime minister was a* traitor."

"*The man is not a* foreigner."

In the last three cases the Nouns, as has been already explained, are best looked upon as Adjectives, and their case is that of the Nouns they qualify.

Inflected languages usually have a special termination for the Nominative which distinguishes it from the Accusative. When both Cases have the same form, as happens in many languages, the needed distinction is conveyed by position. Where the usual order is inverted, as is often the case in poetry, the sense is usually a sufficient guide.

16. The Subject of the Sentence.

The Nominative of the sentence may be the complete expression of the subject or it may form but one element in the subject phrase. We notice here certain variations in the expression of the subject which are closely connected with the Nominative.

(a) Reduplication of the Subject.

For the sake of emphasis the subject is often duplicated and the fashion has extended to cases where little emphasis is intended. Such duplication is obviously a form of pleonasm. It is effected in various ways.

(i) By simple repetition of the Noun or Pronoun ;

" I, *even* I *only am left.*"

(ii) By using a Pronoun in agreement with the Noun of the subject phrase. The Pronoun sometimes precedes and sometimes follows the Noun,

" *And* they *cross themselves with fear, all the* knights *of Camelot.*"

" *The* nobles, they *are fled.*"

(iii) This repetition is sometimes used to recall a subject phrase which, owing to the intervention of long dependent clauses, is remote from its

verb. This is far more common in other languages than in English. The following example exemplifies the form.

> "*The* soldiers, *who had been in the trenches for several days and fighting all the time,* they *were very exhausted.*"

(iv) A Demonstrative instead of a Personal Pronoun gives greater emphasis,

> "*And now abideth faith hope and charity,* these *three.*"

(v) Sometimes a subject denoted by a Relative Pronoun is repeated by means of a Personal,

> "*Only there are laws against papists,* which *it would be better for the land were* they *better executed.*"

(vi) The subject Noun is often strengthened by the addition of a Reflexive Pronoun in apposition.

> "*The king* himself *gave the order.*"

(b) The Anakoluthic Subject.

By this is to be understood those cases where a subject word or phrase comes in the forefront of the sentence, but the sentence is not continued from the Nominative. The apparent Nominative is repeated in a Pronoun in another case, the Nominative then only supplying an isolated antecedent to the Pronoun.

> "*But all the* people *that were born in the wilderness,* them *they had not circumcised.*"
>
> "*But he the* chieftain *of them all,* his *sword hangs rusting on the wall.*"

(c) Omission of the Subject.

Since every sentence must have a subject if the hearer is to know what is spoken of, the omission of

the subject must be made good in thought. The omitted subject is usually a Pronoun whose antecedent is suggested by the discourse or form.

(i) In the Imperative especially, since it is always in the second person and the Nominative is always the person addressed ;

"*Take off your boots.*" ('You' omitted.)

(ii) In Interrogative sentences, where the verbal form of the second person singular indicates the subject ;

" *Dost hear* ? " ('Thou' omitted)

(iii) In conversational language in the first person ;

" *Thank you.*" ('I' omitted)

(iv) Sometimes in the third person, for the sake of emphasis on the predicate, or from reluctance to name the subject ;

" *Curse it,*" "*Bless me.*"

(v) Sometimes in dependent clauses ;

" *Cost what it may, I will see it done.*"

(vi) In impersonal sentences with 'it' the Pronoun may be omitted in dependent clauses ;

"*As sure as can be here he comes.*"

17. The Vocative Case.

This is the form used when it is desired to invite the attention of someone, and is therefore in the second person. As this can quite well be done by uttering the name in a suitable tone of voice, there is little need of a special case form, but the peculiar relation always requires expression. It is possible that the form arose out of a tendency to give the Noun a termination of such resonant sound as to make it audible at a distance.

As its name indicates, the Vocative stands outside the sentence proper. It is usually given as a form for all Nouns alike, but it can be actually used only with names of persons or animals which can be supposed to recognise their names; beyond this its use is due to the figure personification.

Care must be taken to distinguish a true Vocative from an exclamation which is elliptic of a fuller sentence, as :—

"*A horse, A horse,* my kingdom for a horse ;"

here 'a horse' is really an Accusative after a verb 'bring' understood.

18. The Accusative Case.

As in the case of the Subject, so too, in the case of the Object, it is the whole phrase which defines the thing intended and which must be looked upon as the logical Object of the sentence ; the Accusative is the Case of the Noun in such Object phrase.

The Accusative is the Case in closest connection with the word of activity, because such activity is often incomplete without an Object, and since the Accusative helps to limit more particularly the main Predicate notion, it functions adverbially, and is for all practical purposes an Adverb. We may treat of its functioning under the three following heads, and the examples given exhibit most of the uses of the Case, but the student must expect to find that the work done by an Accusative in English, is often performed by another case in other languages.

(I) The Internal Accusative.

Those cases wherein the idea expressed by the Accusative is suggested by the Verb or word of activity.

(*a*) The result of the activity expressed by an Accusative of a Noun derived from the same root ;

"*I should like to live my* life *over again.*"

"*They fought a good* fight."

(*b*) This extended to an Accusative derived from another root, but of similar force to that of the word of activity;

"*I have been many* voyages."

"*He wept bitter* tears."

(*c*) The object indicated in an indefinite manner,

"*Fight* it *out.*"

"*I cannot bear* it."

(*d*) The object produced as the result of the activity;

"*They built a* wall."

"*He composed a* picture."

(II) The External Accusative.

(*a*) The Object as the direct goal of the activity;

"*He shot a* tiger."

"*We have brought our* books *with us.*"

(*b*) Two Accusatives are found after Verbs or Participles which signify an activity producing a new condition in the object affected. Such Verbs are called Factitive, and the new condition produced in the object may be expressed by a Noun, or by an Adjective in agreement with the direct Accusative. This Noun or Adjective may be called a *secondary* predicate.

(i) After Verbs of *thinking, believing, declaring, imagining, etc.*;

"*I hold* him *a* fool."

"*We thought* him *a clever* man."

(ii) After Verbs signifying *making, appointing, nominating, etc.*;

"*I will make* thee *a great* nation."

"*They elected* him chairman."

(iii) The use extends to cases where the Verb does not naturally suggest it ;

"*They shot* him dead."

"*I will drink this* cup dry."

Prepositions may be used with the Noun which is the secondary Accusative ; for the two Accusatives may be substituted a Noun clause, or an Infinitive may be inserted between the two Accusatives ;

"*I thought him a fool.*"

"*I held him for a fool.*"

"*I thought that he was a fool.*"

"*I thought him to be a fool.*"

(*c*) Verbs of *asking, demanding, teaching, etc.* take two Accusatives, one of the person and another of the thing ;

"*Ask* him *his* reasons *for doing as he did.*"

"*My last master taught* me Greek."

Something similar occurs in sentences like :

"*I banished* him *the* kingdom."

"*They denied* him burial."

(*d*) We may notice a peculiar form of the Semitic languages wherein an abbreviated form of the Personal Pronoun is appended to a Verb as a termination, forming its object Accusative, as :—Hebrew, Katalti, I killed ; Kataltícha, I killed her. We may also notice that Hebrew has a special Preposition to indicate the Accusative relation.

(*e*) Cases are found of what is by some looked upon as a sort of Accusative Absolute, but may be taken as adverbial Accusatives of manner ;

"*We met* face *to face,*"

"Knee *to knee we fought.*"

(III) The Adverbial Accusative.

We call this the adverbial Accusative to distinguish it from the two kinds already described, but it is to be remembered that the object Noun is always adverbial in its functioning, because it expresses a modification of the main predicate notion.

The uses here considered are some of them peculiarly English and are the equivalents of other adverbial cases in other languages. The Accusative seems to have been the original case of 'motion to' as "*He went* home," but this was one of the earliest relations to receive expression through a Preposition. It is also sometimes used as the case of Respect or Specification, but this seems to have been originally the province of the Instrumentative. The use of most importance and the one most generally found is that of measure and other nearly allied notions of space and time, with the associated idea of movement or extension, not rest. We give examples of English uses, the student will learn from these what to look for in other languages.

HOW LONG?	"*I have been thirty* years *a student.*"
	"*We sat up all* night."
HOW FAR?	"*He retired three* paces,"
	"*She lives four* miles *away.*"
HOW OFTEN?	"*I go for a walk every* day."
	"*Five* times *a year he comes to see me,*"
BY WHICH WAY?	"*We sailed a new* course."
	"*They went the other* way."
WHEN?	"*He will take furlough next* year."
	"*Seated one* day *at the organ.*"
HOW SOON?	"*I will call again this* day *three* months,"
	"*A* fortnight *hence you will get a letter.*"

MEASURE. "*She was three* years *old.*"
"*My room is sixteen* feet *square.*"

BY HOW MUCH? "*The book was enlarged fifty* pages."
"*He was six* inches *taller than his brother.*"

Notice the following which are peculiar,

"*We went* shares *in the matter.*"

"*It is every* bit *as good as new,*"

"*Meat is now two* shillings *a pound.*"

Also :—

"*They hurried on* board *the ship.*"

"*The villages were on either* side *the river.*"

"*How worthy* condemnation *his action was.*"

(The relation here suggested is the Genitive.)

19. The Genitive Case.

In treating of the remainder of the Cases we must necessarily employ their prepositional equivalents to illustrate them, since, with the exception of the Genitive in some of its meanings, Case terminations have disappeared from English.

The Genitive is the case of the Noun in most intimate relation with another Noun as its adjectival determinant, and can function wherever an Adjective can do so. The following are its most common adjectival uses; adverbial uses arising out of the transference to the Genitive of the functioning of other adverbial cases are not considered here. The Genitive preposition 'of' is frequently used in English as the equivalent of 'out of' or 'from' *i.e.*, as an Ablative preposition, *e.g.* 'Light of Light.'

1. The Genitive of Possession.

This is the common use of the inflected form of the Genitive in English, but the preposition 'of' can convey the same meaning. The Genitive termination 's' is not always Possessive.

"*The boy's book,*" "*the tools of the worker.*"

2. **The Genitive of Material and Content.**

"*A box* of wood." "*A wall* of brick." Material.
"*A cup* of water." "*A crate* of glass." Content

3 **The Partitive Genitive.**

The Genitive states the whole of which the determined Noun specifies a part. The relation is almost ablative;

"*Two* of the soldiers."
"*Some* of the horses."

4. **The Epexegetical Genitive.**

The Genitive explains or defines the nature of the thing named by the determined Noun.

"*A gift* of money," *i.e.* a gift consisting in money.
"*The city* of London," *i.e.* the city called London.

5. **The Subjective Genitive.**

This Genitive expresses the agent of the activity stated or suggested by the determined Noun.

"*The love* of God", *i.e.*, the love which God exercises.
"His *wandering in the rain will bring on a cold.*"

6. **The Objective Genitive.**

This Genitive is the equivalent of an Accusative after a Verb of similar meaning to that of the determined Noun.

"*The fear* of God"; *i.e.*, the fear which God's creatures feel.
Compare "Men should fear God."
"*The love* of praise"; *i.e.*, the desire that men have for praise.

7. **The Genitive of Measure.**

This corresponds to similar uses of an Accusative after a Verb.

"*A stay* of five hours," cf. "He stayed five hours."

8. The Genitive of Relationship

"*My* mother's *niece*". "*My* father's *grand-mother.*"

9. The Genitive of Value or Price.

"*Service* of twenty rupees *per month.*"

These Genitives, like simple Adjectives, can be used without Nouns as Predicates after a Copula.

"*The carriage is my* father's."

"*The windows were* of coloured glass."

Just as the abbreviated Personal Pronouns in the Semitic languages can be appended to Verbs to denote the Accusative, so too they can be appended to a Noun to denote the possessor of the thing named by the Noun as, Adon, *a master*; adoncha, *thy master.* The application of these Genitive terminations to a Noun corresponds to the declension of Nouns in other languages.

The formation of the Genitive in these languages is rather peculiar. The Noun has two forms, a full form called the *Absolute* form, used when the Noun stands alone or denotes the Genitive case, and a shorter form called the *construct* form, used when the Noun is qualified by another in the absolute form, as 'dabar,' *a word* 'd'bar elohim'; *the word of God.*

20. The Ablative Case.

This is the case of 'motion from' and therefore closely akin to the Genitive in some of the uses of that Case. In Greek the work of the Ablative is largely performed by the Genitive. It is the Case of that from which a thing is selected and so of Origin and of Comparison,

"*He started* from home." Motion from.

"*The results* of my work." Origin.

"*This is bigger* than that." Comparison.

"*He drew a stiko* from the faggot." Separation.

21. The Dative Case.

This is the Case of that towards which an action tends, or of the person affected by an action. Its more general uses are :—

(a) The Dative of the Indirect or Remoter Object.

That to which something is done or given, after words of suitable meaning. In English the Dative is not distinguishable in form from the Nominative or Accusative, but it may generally be known by the fact that, when it is a true Dative, the Prepositions 'to' or 'for' can be added without change of meaning.

"*They gave* us *money,*" (To us).
"*He has done* me *good.*"

(b) The Dative of Interest.

This denotes the person or thing benefited or injured by the activity ;

"*Cut* me *off the heads of those traitors.*"
"*It took* me *an hour to complete.*"
"*Such exercise is good* for me."

(c) The Dative of Purpose.

This is allied to the preceding ;

"*I went to the shop* for clothes,"
"*She went* to call *him*" (Dative Infinitive.)
"*He needs that* for the work."

(d) The Dative of the Possessor.

This is not much used in English but is common in some languages ; *e.g.* "It has two feet," in Marathi is "There are two feet to it."

(e) The Dative of the Direct Object.

In many Indian languages the Dative is the usual case of the direct object Noun when such Noun denotes a person and sometimes when it denotes a thing. For

example in a sentence like, "I see him," the 'him' would be in the Dative Case. Such Dative is, in functioning, obviously the Accusative, and might so be termed, but we prefer to call it the Dative, because it is such in form and the idiom seems to have grown out of the Dative of Interest.

(f) **The Dative of 'Motion to.'**

This relation is now, in Indian languages, usually expressed by the Dative Case or by equivalent Prepositions. English also uses the Preposition 'to.' In early times the Accusative was employed to denote this relation.

The Dative in some languages will be found doing the work of Locative and the Instrumentative.

22. The Locative Case.

This Case is used to denote the limits of time, place, etc., within which an activity takes place and, as this would imply, the relation is one which frequently requires expression, but the special Case form disappeared very early from the Western Aryan languages. In the modern Indian languages it still survives and is for the most part constant to its proper significance, but in Sanskrit it is used with considerable freedom and sometimes expresses relations which seem to be remote from its true meaning.

That the Cases are used with such freedom and irregularity in Sanskrit is due mainly to the dearth of Prepositions in that language; the few Cases have to serve many purposes, and sometimes it is difficult to see why the same meaning is conveyed now by one Case and now by another.

Examples are :—

"*He was standing* in the water."

"*They will finish the work* within three weeks."

"*We were* in great trouble."

23. The Instrumentative Case.

This is the Case of the *agent*, the *instrument* and the *cause* or *reason*, and was probably the original case of Specification and of Measure of Difference. It survives in the modern Indian languages and is therein fairly constant to its primary significance, but in Sanskrit it is used with some freedom;

"*He was struck* by lightning". Agent.
"*She shot him* with a revolver". Instrument.
"*They did it* through haste". Reason.
"*He is lame* of his feet". Specification.
"*He is taller than his sister* by three inches".
Measure of Difference.

All these meanings are conveyed by the Instrumentative in Indian languages.

24. The Sociative Case.

This Case, if it ever existed as a distinct form, early came to be looked upon as a variety of the Instrumentative, but the relation it expresses, *viz.*, that of the accompanying circumstance, is quite distinct and very commonly employed. Marathi has a special form for this, but it is regarded as belonging to the Instrumentative.

"*They will come* with their servants".
"*He spoke* with confidence".

25. Declension.

By Declension we mean the process of inflection as applied to Nouns, Pronouns and Adjectives, when they are modified to express Gender, Number, Person and Case. Inflected languages usually have several forms of declension, applicable to various groups of Nouns, and mainly determined by the characteristic vowels of their bases. Sanskrit has ten of these declensions, and since each has special forms for three Numbers and eight Cases, *i.e.*, twenty-four in all, and since these inflections are liable to modification for phonetic reasons, it will be seen what an immense gain in simplicity has resulted from the substitution of Prepositions of clear and definite meaning for the Case forms.

CHAPTER V

PREPOSITIONS.

1. The Nature and Functioning of Prepositions.

Owing to the absence of Case forms in English, we have been driven to employ Prepositions in our explanation of the meaning of Case. This, of itself, is sufficient to show what Prepositions really are. They are best looked upon as substitutes for Case forms, and as extensions of their functions, *i.e.*, they are words used with Nouns to express the relation of other words in the sentence to these Nouns, and their distinction from Case terminations is a matter of form only. This view of their nature is supported by the usage of Indian languages, which append the Prepositions, or Postpositions as they are there called, to the base of a Noun in the same way that the Case terminations are appended.

The functioning of Prepositions is such that they must be used with words which, whatever their form, must stand for a notion which is nominal and made objective, and they can be used with any words which can be substituted for Nouns. It should be clear that a notion must be objectified before it can be related to another.

The position of Prepositions with regard to their Nouns is not uniform. They may be separate words preceding the Nouns as in English, or inseparable forms affixed to Nouns as in Hebrew, or separable words appended to Nouns as Case terminations are ; this is the method employed in the Indian languages. This is sufficient to show that the name usually given to them is objectionable, since it does not indicate their true office, *i.e.*, their relating function.

2. Kinds of Prepositions.

Prepositions (or Postpositions) might well be grouped in accordance with the meanings of the Cases they have displaced. Such classification would be a work of some difficulty, owing to the remote character of the relations they

have come to express, and perhaps also a work of little practical utility, but the student may notice that they do roughly fall into groups suggested by the meaning of the Case forms, *viz.*, Belonging to, Motion from, Motion to, Rest in, the Agent, the Instrument, the Cause, the Manner. The functioning of Prepositions is so regular and obvious that differences in functioning, such as would lead to varying grammatical results, are not found. We give a classification based on form.

(*a*) Simple Prepositions, *At, with, by, to, for, under, etc.*

(*b*) Double Prepositions, *From among, from off, out of, etc.*

(*c*) Compound Prepositions, *Across, amidst, between, behind, etc.*

(*d*) Participial Prepositions, *Pending, during, considering, regarding, etc.*

(*e*) Phrase Prepositions. Many phrases, consisting of a Preposition and a Noun with another Preposition following, are found, and these have come to be used as simple Prepositions and express the relation of the Noun following the second Preposition to some other word, *e.g.*, *In common with, for want of, in the face of, etc.*

3. Origin of Prepositions.

The earliest Prepositions seem to have sprung from Adverbs, which were prefixed to Verbs to qualify the notion of activity, the whole compound then being treated as a single notion and governing an appropriate Case, which often repeated the meaning of the Adverb. Something similar occurs in English wherein compound words of classical origin often require a particular Preposition after them, which repeats the meaning of the Adverb, *e.g.* "*I* con*clude* with *this*."

The primary significance of Adverbs, Prepositions and Adverbial Cases was apparently spacial, whence it was extended to temporal, and then to metaphorical relations, until it is difficult to trace any connection between the deve-

loped meaning and the primary significance. It is probable that the Adverbs from which Prepositions are derived are themselves decayed Case forms of Nouns.

4. Government of Prepositions.

It is customary to express the connection of the Preposition with its Noun by saying that the Preposition governs the Noun. If Prepositions are substitutes for Case terminations, the expression can hardly be appropriate ; the Preposition is a relating word, and has no effect upon the Noun in any intelligible sense of those words. In a sentence like " He slew him with a sword", 'with' cannot be said to govern 'sword'. This manner of speaking arose from the fact that Prepositions in the classical languages were usually found accompanied by certain Cases, *e.g.*, a Preposition signifying 'Motion to' could not be appropriately followed by a Case meaning 'Motion from'. As we have already shown, the most suitable form of the Noun after a Preposition is that which least displays any kind of relation, since the Preposition does all that is needed and the bare Noun expresses no Case relation. The expression that Prepositions govern Cases is sometimes convenient and may be permitted if too much is not made of it ; it expresses a fact of idiom not of real governance.

5. Idiomatic use of Prepositions.

The idiomatic use of Prepositions constitutes one of the main difficulties in many languages. Many Nouns, Adjectives and Verbs demand a particular Preposition with them and will tolerate no other. The right idiom must be learnt by practice and careful scrutiny of the language studied ; there is no short cut to a knowledge of such idiom nor is it possible to lay down general rules.

Of the English Prepositions the following do much of the work of the older Cases and share in the confusion which overtook them ; they are :—

For the Genitive, *Of*.
For the Ablative, *From*.

For the Dative, *To or For.*

For the Locative, *At, In or On.*

For the Instrumentative, *By or Through.*

For the Sociative, *With.*

The more modern Prepositions have clearly defined and definite meanings.

6. Prepositions with Noun Substitutes.

The use of Prepositions for Cases has this additional advantage that it makes possible the expression of Case relations when the Object or related idea is expressed by a Noun Clause or other form to which a Case termination could not conveniently be appended. The following are examples:—

Adverbs used as Nouns ;

"*We must get it done* by then".

"*It is lying there* till now".

Phrases ;

"*He has come* from beyond the seas".

"*I bought this* for under half its price".

Noun Clause.

"*This depends* upon whether he goes or not".

7. Prepositions and Adverbs.

It is necessary to distinguish the use of a word as an Adverb from its use as a Preposition. Many Verbs in English take an Adverb after them, the Verb and the Adverb together being pronounced in one effort of utterance and forming the equivalent of the older compound of Adverb with Verb. The Adverb may be distinguished by this, that it must rest upon a Verb or Adjective and expresses a modification of it, while the Preposition must be combined with a Noun and relates this Noun to some other word ;

"I read out the story". 'Out' an Adverb.

"I walked out of the room". 'Out of' a compound Preposition.

"I fended off the boat with a pole", 'Off' an Adverb ; 'with' a Preposition.

8. The Prepositional Phrase.

The Preposition and its Noun together make up determining or qualifying phrases, and it is best to treat these as wholes, and so qualified by Adverbs, as are simple Adjectives and Adverbs. The employment of Prepositions instead of Case terminations has led to the free use of prepositional phrases as Adjectives. E.g., in the sentence, "The man in the street thinks thus," the phrase 'in the street' qualifies 'man' and is an Adjective. The Locative Case form could not be used in this way. Marathi employs a special means to make case forms adjectival, achieving its purpose by adding a special termination to the adverbial case form.

To be consistent with our explanation of the structure of the sentence we must say that in a sentence like, "The team was on the ground," 'on the ground' must be looked upon as the predicate of the sentence.

This kind of Adjective phrase is often treated as an elliptic form of a relative clause, but it is better to take it for what it actually is in thought, *i.e.*, an Adjective, and this is borne out by what was said in the last paragraph. The predicate cannot be a relative clause. The plausibility of the usual explanation is due to the fact that an explanation, to be intelligible, must be a complete expression of a judgment, but this is no warrant for looking on the form explained as an abbreviation of such explanation; this is often done.

9. Substitutes for Nouns.

We have considered the way in which the Noun can be employed in the sentence. For simple Nouns certain other forms can be substituted; some of these are real substitutes, while others suggest an omitted Noun; they are the following :—

1. **Pronouns of all kinds.**

These are real substitutes.

2. Abstract Nouns of Action.

a. Gerunds, as "Fishing *for sticklebacks is a childish occupation*".

b. Infinitives, as "To labour *is* to pray".

c. The Noun of the Product, as "*His* writing *is bad*".

d. The Noun of the Agent, as "*The* breaker *of the window ran away*".

3. Words, Phrases or Clauses.

Words, Phrases or Clauses when made matter of comment;

"Yesterday *is spelt with nine letters*".

"In the room *is a prepositional phrase*".

"That the debt was owing *was known to all*".

These are Noun notions with no names.

4. Adjectives.

Adjectives of all kinds, including Participles and Genitives;

"Seven *were present*".

"These *were all I saw*".

"*The* good *are loved*".

"Yours *are the best*".

"*The* ailing *must be cared for*".

In all cases under (4) there is ellipse of the Noun which must be understood from the context. The omitted Noun is usually one signifying persons.

5. Words, commonly Adverbs.

Words, commonly Adverbs, are used to indicate nominal ideas;

"*He will be finished by* then".

These substitutes may be used in all positions and, with the exception of (2b), with Prepositions.

CHAPTER VI

WORDS CONTAINING A CONJUNCTIONAL ELEMENT.

1. The Subject of this Chapter.

Before proceeding to a consideration of the other Parts of Speech, it is necessary to examine the force of certain conjunctional elements found in Pronouns, Adjectives and Adverbs, in the Aryan languages. Many of these regularly exhibit initial or final letters or syllables which give them a force additional to that of the Part of Speech to which they belong, and impart a distinct character to the clause or sentence in which they are found. We give the forms of the third Personal Pronoun to illustrate this.

	1.	2.	3.	4.	5.
Marathi,	Kon	jo	to	ha	konihi.
Sanskrit,	Kas	yas	tat	etad	kaschit.
Latin,	Quis	qui	iste	hic	quicunque.
English,	Who	who	that	this	whoever.
			(or he)		

The first form in each case is usually called the Interrogative, the second the Relative, the third and fourth the Demonstratives and the fifth the Indefinite. The question of what was the original form of these distinctive initial or final elements must be answered by philology, but their force must be explained here.

2. Interrogatives.

The function of Interrogative words, so far as the interrogative element alone is considered, is to give the sentence the interrogative significance. A question starts from what we may call an incomplete judgment, and the purpose of the questioner is to ascertain the character of the missing element. An Interrogative Pronoun asks for a Noun or antecedent, an Interrogative Adjective for an Adjective, an

Interrogative Adverb for an Adverb; the Interrogatives therefore are not really true to the definition of the Part of Speech to which they are said to belong; the Pronoun has no definite antecedent but asks for one; an Adjective or Adverb exercises no qualifying power, but asks for a qualification to be supplied.

In a complete sentence five principal elements are comprised and we may treat of Interrogatives in accordance with this. These elements are:—

Nouns, as Subject, Object or Predicate Nouns or with Prepositions;
Adjectives, attributive or predicative;
Verbs, expressing the predicate of activity;
Adverbs, qualifying predicates and attributes;
Copulas, expressing the act of judgment.

We thus have:—

(*a*) Interrogatives asking for a Noun, and called Interrogative Pronouns;

"Who *is coming?*" Subject Noun required.
"Whom *did you see?*" Object Noun required.
"What *is that man?*" Predicate Noun required.
"To whom *did you give it?*" Noun of prepositional phrase required.

(*b*) Interrogatives which form questions asking for an Adjective and are usually called Interrogative Adjectives; these are few in English but the lack is made good by phrases and Genitives.

"Whose *book is this?*"
"Of what *colour would you like it?*"
"Which *shall I take?*"
"What sort *of horse was it?*"

(*c*) Interrogatives forming questions asking for the supply of a predicate of activity.

The form of such questions and of their usual answers is somewhat peculiar. To form the question the Verb 'to do', which expresses

action generally, is employed, as "What are you doing?" "What have they done?" It will be seen that the answer is not usually appropriate to the question, which contains an Interrogative Pronoun and asks for a Noun. The appropriate reply would supply a Noun of Action, *e.g.*, "What are you doing?" Answer, "I am writing a letter", more correctly, if we follow the form of the question, "The writing of a letter".

(*d*) Interrogatives asking for an Adverb and called Interrogative Adverbs. These are words like *how, why, when, where,* etc. The answer to such questions is the supply of words, phrases or clauses which do adverbial work.

"Why *did you come?*"
"Where *did you stay?*"
"How large *is your house?*"
"When *did he start?*"

(*e*) Questions asking for an assertion of the judgment, *i.e.*, for a Copula, are framed without the help of an Interrogative word in English, and the needed significance is given by a change in the word order, *viz.*, by putting the Copula before the Nominative of the sentence. Some languages employ a special interrogative word to denote this kind of question, in others the work is done by the tone of the voice.

"*Shall you see him to-day?*"
"*Will he do it now?*"

The answer 'Yes' or 'No' indicates assent to or dissent from the suggested relation of the Predicate to the Subject.

3. Relatives.

The words which display an Interrogative form also display a Relative form. This form was originally distinct from

the Interrogative form and still is so in most languages, although in English it is now found to be the same. The special force of the relative element is to mark the clause it introduces as dependent, and any clause so introduced is either a Noun, an Adjective or an Adverb clause. We might therefore well call them Dependent Pronouns, and the element with which we are concerned is clearly conjunctional, relating the clause in which it is contained to the principal clause in a dependent manner.

It is common to see it written that Relative Pronouns are so called because they are Pronouns which relate to an antecedent, and that they are equivalent to Personal Pronouns with 'and'; this is obviously not a true explanation, because all Pronouns relate to antecedents, *i.e.*, all stand for Nouns; neither is it true to say that the Relatives stand for 'and' with a Personal Pronoun, for such paraphrase converts the clause into a principal clause and this is exactly what the Relative form enables us to avoid.

The true significance of the Relative element is perhaps more clearly seen in languages which retain the older order, and place the relative clause before the principal clause instead of interweaving the two as English does. The following sentences exhibit the older order; they are strange to English ears, but to those familiar with a language which preserves the order they are quite clear;

"*By* which *way we came by that way we shall return*".

"Which *man brought my box he is a Maratha*".

"When *he comes then I will tell him the news*".

The English order would be:—

"*We shall return by the way by which we came*".

"*The man who brought my box is a Maratha*".

Students of Hebrew will see that this explanation of the Relative agrees with the use of the Conjunction 'asher' in that language.

Since dependent clauses must be either Noun, Adjective or Adverb clauses, we may conveniently treat of the Relatives under these heads.

(*a*) RELATIVES MARKING THE CLAUSE AS NOMINAL.

The word commonly used for this purpose is 'that,' and this is rightly regarded as a Conjunction because the pronominal element has almost disappeared from it;

"That *he was to blame was clear*".

"*I understood* that *he had gained his point*".

The ordinary Relative Pronouns are used when the dependent clause contains no Noun and a pronominal reference is required;

"*I saw* who *it was*".

"*He heard* what *I said*".

"*It is not known* why *they failed*".

"*He taught me* how *the thing worked*".

After Verbs of *asking*, *demanding*, etc., the Interrogative fulfils the office of introducing the Noun Clause;

"*I asked her* where *she was living*".

(*b*) RELATIVES INTRODUCING ADJECTIVE CLAUSES;

"*The man* who *told me can be trusted*".

"*The stone* that *you see there was brought from abroad*".

"*I found the place* where *he was buried*".

"*He came at a time* when *I was disengaged*".

(*c*) RELATIVES INTRODUCING AN ADVERB CLAUSE;

"*They cannot go* where *they like*".

"*The moon will appear* when *the storm has passed away.*"[1]

It may be noticed that since the Relatives refer to antecedents, the supply of the antecedent changes the character of the clauses; *e.g.*, to the sentence, "I heard that he was dead," we may supply the antecedent 'news' and the sentence then becomes, "I heard the news that he was dead"; 'that he was dead' is an adjective clause.

In the same way, if we supply the antecedent to the Adverb clause in the sentence, "The moon will appear when the storm has passed away", we get "The moon will appear at the time when the storm has passed away", and what was an Adverb clause has become an Adjective clause. We may therefore look upon the Conjunctional element in the Relative Pronoun as primarily intended to indicate the Adjective clause, and, as the perusal of a few grammars will show, the real meaning of 'relative' is adjectival.

4. Demonstratives.

The force of the demonstrative element in so-called demonstrative words is to mark the principal clause as distinct from the dependent clause, and they are used in principal clauses when no relative clause has preceded. This is borne out by the practice of some grammars which treat of these as Correlatives of the Relatives. Following the older order of sentences referred to above we may say :—

" *Who stole my money* he *was my servant*".

" *When he went away* then *I knew what I had lost*".

" *Who lately called* he *will come to-morrow*".

All the languages which employ these Demonstratives exhibit them in two forms, one denoting a remoter and the other a nearer object. Changes in the order of the words have brought it about that the true significance of the demonstrative element has, in English, become somewhat obscured, and the emphasis falls rather on their adjectival force as suggesting remoteness and proximity, but the original significance of the conjunctional elements still remains. The meanings of remoteness and proximity are secondary and not primary, part of their significance as Pronouns and not involved in the conjunctional force of the initial demonstrative element.

5. Indefinites.

Considered with reference to their influence upon the sentence, these are words which exhibit some sort of mark

to show that the clause or sentence is, as it were, universalised or given a distributive character. Such words are *whatever, whoever, whosoever, wherever, etc.* The universalising element is added to words already in the Interrogative or Relative form and is not used in principal assertive sentences. It can be used with Interrogatives because of the indefinite character of the antecedent yet to be supplied.

"However *did you manage that?*"

"Wherever *you go you will have the same trouble*".

"Whoever *did it deserves to be punished*".

The forms here considered must be distinguished from Pronouns which relate to an undetermined antecedent, but do not universalise the reference.

CHAPTER VII

PRONOUNS.

1. The Functioning of Pronouns.

Pronouns are words used in the place of Nouns in order to avoid their frequent repetition; they thus help to secure conciseness of expression and to avoid the undue emphasis which repetition of the Noun would produce. This is their primary function, whatever else may be involved in their form or significance, and they must therefore in some way indicate the antecedent Noun, whose place they take, if confusion of meaning is to be avoided; such confusion is very probable when more than one possible antecedent is contained in the preceding sentence or clause. This reference to a definite antecedent is given by means of the inflections for Gender, Number and Person, or the significance of these inflections is denoted by separate words. Bereft of this reference to an antecedent a Pronoun conveys no clear meaning, and such inflections as are of service in defining such reference must therefore be looked upon as essentially necessary and

not merely demanded by concord. When the reference required cannot be made clear by concord or position, the Noun itself must be repeated.

2. The Use of Pronouns.

Since Pronouns are used instead of Nouns, they can occupy all the positions which Nouns can occupy ; they may therefore be treated as Nouns in all respects. Like Nouns, they are inflected for Gender, Number, Person and Case, or are used with Prepositions to form phrases, but the Case of a Pronoun is not that of its antecedent (except in cases of attraction), but is determined by the requirements of the clause or sentence in which it stands. The Oblique Cases of Pronouns, like those of Nouns, will function as Adjectives or Adverbs.

It will frequently be found that the bases to which the Case terminations of Pronouns are appended in inflectional languages are very irregular. This sort of irregularity is mainly due to excessive wear, and since Pronouns are, of all words, the most frequently used, the student will expect to find them exhibiting this irregularity.

Care must be taken to distinguish pure Pronouns, *i.e.* words used instead of Nouns, from Adjectives of the same form used without Nouns, when the omitted Noun is sufficiently defined by custom or by the context.

3. Kinds of Pronouns.

Pronouns may be divided into classes as follows :—

(*a*) *Pure Pronouns, i.e.,* those which stand for an antecedent simply. These again may be divided into :—

(1) Personal Pronouns.
(2) Indeterminate Personal Pronouns.
(3) Reflexive Pronouns.
(4) Reciprocal Pronouns.

(*b*) *Interrogative Pronouns, i.e.,* Personal Pronouns with the Interrogative significance super-added.

(c) *Relative or Dependent Pronouns, i.e.*, Personal Pronouns with the element of dependence super-added.

(d) *Demonstrative or Principal Pronouns, i.e.*, the correlates of the Relatives.

(e) *Indefinite or Universalising Pronouns, i.e.*, those which add to the Relative or Interrogative significance that of universality.

The force of these added elements has been already explained.

4. Personal Pronouns of the 1st and 2nd Person.

The term Personal Pronoun is open to objection, for the element of Person is never absent from any Noun or Pronoun ; we retain the name since it is generally accepted, and there is a certain justification for this in the fact that the Pronouns of class (a) above, supply the Nominative in the inflected forms of the Verb in the classical languages, when no other Nominative is present.

The Pronouns most strictly deserving the name of Personal Pronouns are those of the first and second Person, for the antecedent of these is always a person or something treated as such. The antecedents of these Pronouns are also invariable since they always refer, in the first Person, to the speaker, and in the second, to those addressed ; in fact they take the place of Nouns to such an extent that no sentence can contain their antecedents except in the form of Proper Nouns in apposition to the Pronouns, as in " I, Thomas Jones, tell you this ". If the speaker uses his own name as the Nominative of the sentence, the sentence is constructed in the third Person as " Thomas Jones tells you this ".

The Pronouns of the First and Second Person exhibit no special mark of gender, because it is obvious to both speaker and hearer who it is that is indicated by the Pronoun, and it is therefore unnecessary to state it. The plural of both is distinct in form from the singular, because the 'we' or 'you'

may include others besides the speaker or individual hearer. A distinction is sometimes found between a 'we' which includes the hearer and a 'we' which does not.

The only surviving case form of the Pronouns in English is the Genitive of Possession, and two forms are used, a phenomenon not commonly found, as *my, mine*; *his, hers*; *our, ours*; *their, theirs*; the first form in each case is used attributively with a Noun as "this is my book", the second is used without a Noun, as, "the book is mine", "mine is the best". Since the Genitive Case always functions as an Adjective, there is no need to make a separate class of Possessive Adjectives in English, but in some languages such Adjectives will be found, and they are declined throughout in the usual manner, *e.g.*, the Latin 'meus', 'suus'. The pronominal reference to an antecedent still remains in these words, but their concord is adjectival with the Noun qualified, and not with the antecedent of the pronominal element in them.

5. The Honorific Pronouns.

The Pronouns of the First and Second Person are commonly employed in ways not justified by logic. In order to convey an impression of dignity the plural 'we' is often used for 'I', as, for example, by the editor of a newspaper or in the proclamations of a ruler. In the second Person the plural form is very often used for the singular as a matter of politeness, and the second singular form is then often restricted to particular uses. In English 'you' has superseded 'thoul' to such an extent that consciousness of its polite or even plural significance has almost disappeared. In Indian languages, especially in those of the Dravidian family, this use of honorific Pronouns is highly elaborated, and the student who wishes to speak politely must pay attention to the matter.

6. The Personal Pronouns of the Third Person.

Among the Personal Pronouns must be included the Pronouns of the Third Person viz., *'he'*, *'she'*, *'it'* and *'they'* or

their equivalents. In some languages the plural is inflected for three genders as the singular is. Some languages also preserve the distinction of remoteness and proximity in these Pronouns even when there is no dependent clause in the sentence, *e.g.*, Marathi says '*ha karito*', he (this man) does, and '*to karito*', he (that man) does.

The Pronouns of the Masculine and Feminine of the Third Person present little difficulty; they agree with their antecedents regularly. The Pronoun of the Neuter Singular requires more notice. Normally it is the Pronoun of the Neuter antecedent, whatever the system of gender in vogue, and so far it is regularly used, but it is also employed when the antecedent is a quoted word, a phrase or a clause, and it is necessary in such cases to ascertain whether it is the whole clause or a Noun in it which is the antecedent of the Pronoun.

In other cases the indefinite character of the reference to an antecedent is such that it is not easy to say exactly what the antecedent really is, as in the sentence 'It rains'. This 'it' of indefinite reference is also usually employed in Impersonal sentences as, "It seems to me that you are mistaken".

The Neuter Singular Pronoun is also freely used to bring about the inversion of a sentence; the Pronoun forms a sort of indefinite Nominative, and the true logical subject, which is the antecedent to the Pronoun, is put in the predicate position or after the predicate. This is sometimes called the *anticipatory* reference of the Pronoun. The transferred subject expression is often an Infinitive clause or a Noun clause introduced by that;

"It *was a very large snake*".

"It *was necessary to come to a decision*".

"It *was known that the man was a spy*".

A Demonstrative may take the place of the Personal Pronoun;

"This *was his greatest fault that he could not be trusted*".

The Noun of the transferred subject phrase may be qualified by an Adjective clause, wherein the Relative agrees with the true subject Noun and not with the 'it', as "It is the Germans *who* are to blame for the war".

An idiom somewhat similar to the above is seen in the use of 'there' as introductory of a sentence, as in, "There is a moon tonight." In such sentences the 'there' is difficult to parse because of the almost complete loss of its original meaning as an Adverb. Used in this way the word does little more than satisfy an indistinct consciousness that the Copula requires something to rest upon.

When the plural Pronoun has special forms for each gender, the Neuter is sometimes used in a general way with little regard to the gender of its antecedents; *e.g.*, for the sentence "John, Mary and their dog have gone for a walk", Marathi would say, "John, Mary and their dog, *these* have gone for a walk", and 'these' would be in the neuter plural.

7. Indeterminate Personal Pronouns.

In this class we include words like *they, one, none,* etc., as used in sentences like those given below. They function as do other Personal Pronouns, but their antecedents are not clearly suggested or stated;

"They *say that the war will end this year*".

"One *is not always sure of* one's *facts*".

"Anyone *can do the work*".

"None *can do it easily*".

The antecedent in all cases is some indefinite person.

8. Reflexive Pronouns.

These are used when the Pronoun in other positions in the sentence refers to the Nominative as its antecedent; they are consequently not found in the Nominative Case with the reflexive meaning. The English Reflexives are *myself, thyself, himself, herself, itself, ourselves, yourselves* and *themselves*. These forms are irregular, the reflexive element being joined

in some cases to the Genitive and in others to the Accusative of the Personal Pronoun, and they retain these forms even when used in apposition to a Nominative for emphasis, *e.g.*, "The man *himself* told me."

Examples of true reflexive use are :—

"*He is living by* himself".

"*They were talking to* themselves".

"*She drowned* herself".

The reflexive form is sufficient of itself, without further modification for concord, to indicate the antecedent, and some languages employ but one reflexive form for all persons and genders. The convenience of such a Pronoun is especially manifest in cases where in English the reference of a Pronoun in the Genitive Case is ambiguous, *e.g.*, "He wrote in *his* book"; here it is not always clear whether the Pronoun refers to the subject Noun or to some other. The ambiguity is avoided by using the word 'own' with the Genitive in a reflexive sense, but the work is better done by a distinct Pronoun.

9. Reciprocal Pronouns.

The Reciprocal Pronouns are 'one another', 'each other', and their equivalents in other languages. They indicate that the various members of a composite subject are by turns subject and object of the activity, *e.g.*, "William and John fought each other", is equivalent to "William fought John and John fought William". Sentences in which these Pronouns appear may therefore be looked upon as contracted sentences, and the predicate notion must be one of activity.

10. Interrogative Pronouns.

The true antecedent of an Interrogative Pronoun is the Noun asked for by the question. If this antecedent were known, there would be no need to ask for it to be supplied; there is therefore often nothing to determine the concord, and the Interrogative may often be out of concord with the Noun which is its real antecedent. *E.g.*, we may say, "Who did

this ? " and receive for answer, " It was done by the wind". 'Who' is not in concord with 'wind', which is neuter while 'who' is masculine or feminine. This shows that distinctions of gender and number are unnecessary in these Pronouns, and all that is really required is an interrogative word asking for a Noun.

The Interrogative Pronouns in English are 'who' masculine and feminine, and 'what' and 'which' neuter, but 'which' is more often an Adjective, meaning 'which one.' We may add 'whether' meaning 'which of two', but this is becoming obsolete.

11. Relative Pronouns.

Divested of the conjunctional element, Relative Pronouns are Personal Pronouns. They refer to antecedents which are known and there is consequently no difficulty in determining the concords to be employed. In inflected languages they usually have terminations for all genders and numbers, but these are not really necessary, as is shown by the fact that English employs 'that' as the Relative for all genders and numbers, and 'who' is used for both masculine and feminine in both numbers.

The distinction between 'that' and 'who' or 'which' must be understood. Relative Pronouns introduce Adjective clauses which, like other Adjectives, can be used either attributively or appositively, *i.e.*, they may assist to define the subject by stating something already accepted, or they may express subsidiary predicates, stating something previously unknown regarding the subject, preliminary to the expression of the predicate. When strictly used 'that' is the proper Relative when the clause is attributive, and 'who' or 'which' when it is appositive. In actual practice the distinction is not observed and 'that' and 'who' are freely interchanged with a view to variety of expression. The distinction is then sufficiently marked by the use of a pause in reading, or of a stop in writing, when the clause is used appositively. In

English 'that' has no Genitive of its own and 'whose' supplies the need; 'which' is the corresponding word to be used with Prepositions. Examples of attributive clauses are :—

"*The book* that *I hold in my hand*". Accusative.

"*The book* in which *I was reading*". With Preposition.

"*The book* whose *binding is torn*". Genitive.

"*The book* that *lies on the table*". Nominative.

Examples of appositive clauses are :—

"*The man*, who *now begs my pardon*, did me great injury".

"*The rain*, which *fell heavily yesterday, has now stopped*".

"*The house*, which *was built only last year, has fallen down*".

When an adjective clause qualifies the object Noun of the sentence, its dependent character is largely lost sight of, because it does not, as in the case of a clause qualifying a subject Noun, furnish a ground for a following predicate; we may then look upon such a clause as almost the equivalent of an independent sentence, although the dependent form somewhat weakens the emphasis; *e.g.*, *We met the man* who *said that he would return at once.* We might substitute 'and he' for the relative without much change of meaning.

'As' is used as a Relative in English when 'the same' or 'such' is found in the principal clause :—

"*This is not* such *a tiresome matter* as *I expected*".

"As *many* as *came were satisfied*".

'But' when used as a Relative is a negative meaning 'who not', 'which not';

"*There are none* but *will agree with you*", *i.e.* "There are none who will not".

12. Demonstrative Pronouns.

As we have shown, the primary functioning of Demonstratives is somewhat obscured in the English use of them, because the sense of proximity or remoteness is usually emphasised in them.

The following example exhibits the latter meaning :—

"*Doctors and clergymen are both necessary,* these *heal the soul and* those *the body*".

The emphatic use of the Demonstrative Pronouns is seen in sentences like :—

"*To be or not to be,* that *is the question.*"

'That' is a simple Pronoun in cases like :—

"*The way by the river is longer than* that *by the hill*".

These Demonstratives are used when a thing is pointed out by a gesture as "Look at *this*". (The speaker shows the thing he speaks of.)

Ordinary Personal Pronouns may be looked upon as Demonstrative when they introduce a principal sentence upon which another clause depends as :—

"*Who gives me health* he *gives me wealth*".

"He *who calls me a fool is my enemy*".

'Such' is a Demonstrative Pronoun in sentences of the form "Kings are constituted such by law", but the use approaches to the functioning of the Adjective, as the 'such' strongly suggests the connotation of the Noun referred to.

13. Indefinite or Universalising Pronouns.

These have been sufficiently considered. The pronominal element in them calls for no remark. The nature of the conjunctional element makes it impossible that it can be appended to the Nominative of a principal sentence, which must denote a particular individual or group.

14. The Absence of many Pronouns.

A survey of the actual Pronouns in use shows that, although they are sufficient for practical purposes, there are not so many of them as their definition implies. A Pronoun has no meaning but such as it derives from its antecedent through concord for Gender, Number and Person, and if the roll of Pronouns were complete and there was one for every possible antecedent, there would be a form for each gender in each number and each person, *i.e.*, twenty seven in all, in languages which retain the dual number.

No language has nearly so many, but some have more than English and it is worth while to see why fewer suffice.

(*a*) With the loss of the Dual Number disappear all Pronouns of that number; this decreases the number of possible Pronouns by one third.

(*b*) In the First and Second Person, the speaker and hearer being present to one another, there is no need to specify gender in the Pronouns of these Persons; there are required one each for the First and Second Person in the singular and the same in the plural.

(*c*) In the Third Person some languages have forms for all Genders in the plural as well as in the singular number. Others, as in English, employ but one, and this is found sufficient, since what is indicated through concord of number does not require to be repeated by concord of gender.

(*d*) Since the Interrogative asks for a Noun which is not known, the concords cannot be certain, and all that practical need requires is that the Interrogative significance should be combined with a word asking for a Noun; one Pronoun would be quite sufficient.

(*e*) The use of the Attributive Relative 'that' for all genders, persons, and numbers in English shows that one pronoun can do the work although several are used. The valuable distinction in Relatives is that which marks the attributive or appositive use.

(*f*) The Demonstratives 'this' and 'that' have lost all inflexions for gender in English, and when it is necessary to distinguish between members of a composite subject as antecedents, the idea of remoteness or proximity is sufficient to do the work.

All this flows from the fact that Pronouns have no meaning but such as they derive from their reference to antece-

dents by means of concord. Where a need does not arise, or where the reference is already sufficiently clear, there the Pronoun tends to disappear, and English especially dispenses with a good many of them. We would commend this section to the notice of those who think English an inferior language because of its lack of inflected forms. There is nothing valuable in the capacity to make concords which serve no useful purpose.

15. Pronouns of Place, Time, etc.

The words here considered are *when, whence, where, whither, why, how, etc.*, and the corresponding forms as explained in Chapter V. A special consideration is demanded because they appear to function as various Parts of Speech and are often wrongly parsed.

The conjunctional element in these words has already been explained; we have to explain the true significance of the words irrespective of the conjunctional element.

If the following sentences are compared, the pronominal force of these words will appear.

	Antecedent.
I know *who* it was.	Person.
I know *what* it was.	Thing.
I know *where* it was.	Place.
I know *when* it was.	Time.
I know *why* it was.	Reason.
I know *how* it was.	Manner.

The Relative in each case refers to a suppressed antecedent, introduces a Noun clause, and is therefore a Pronoun. If we introduce the antecedent into the sentence, we can see that the Relative is really in an oblique Case;

I know the place in which it was. (Where it was)
I know that manner in which he did it. (How he did it)
I know the reason for which he did it. (Why he did it)

I know the time at which he did it. (When he did it)

I know the place to which he has gone. (Whither he has gone).

The pronominal force of these words is therefore always present, but in accordance with our remarks regarding the adverbial force of the oblique Cases, the Pronouns can be used adverbially, *e.g.*

" He was standing there "; *i.e.* in that place, 'place' being the antecedent.

" We were told about it then "; *i.e.* at that time.

Adverbial phrases again can be used to qualify Nouns, *i.e.*, as Adjectives, and we have :—

" The people were *there* ", (*i.e.* in that place) Predicative.

" The people *there* were amazed ". Attributive.

It is possible therefore to distinguish two kinds of clauses *viz.*, those introduced by Relative Pronouns, *i.e.*, Pronouns involving a conjunctional element, *e.g.*

" *The place* where *the house is built is damp* ". Adjective clause.

" *They came* when *I invited them* ". Adverb clause.

Those introduced by pure Conjunctions.

" *The train will be gone* before *you reach the station* ".

" *The rain will fall* after *the wind sinks* ".

The latter are always Adverb clauses, while the former may be treated as having arisen from Adjective clauses.

16. Attraction.

An important feature in some languages is that known as *Attraction.* By Attraction is meant the assimilation of the Case of one word to that of another to which it is related, in a way to break the ordinary rules of concord or the logical requirements of the sentence. The most common case is that where a Relative Pronoun, which should be in the

Accusative, as expressing the object of the Verb in its own clause, is put in the Genitive or Dative to agree in Case with its antecedent. Other cases are that the Nominative of a sentence may be in the Case of its Relative ; the Copula may agree with a Noun predicate instead of with the Nominative in gender and number ; the Verb may agree with an appositive Noun rather than with its real Nominative, etc.

Akin to Attraction is the figure *Synesis*. This term is used to express the fact that Pronouns or Verbs, instead of following the form of the Antecedent or Nominative, often take the form appropriate to the sense; this is most commonly found when the antecedent is a Collective Noun.

CHAPTER VIII

CONCORD.

1. The Nature of Concord.

By Concord is meant the agreement of some words with others in the same sentence, to show that they depend upon or refer to these. The making of such concords presupposes that words are capable of such modifications of form as will exhibit such agreement. English has so few inflections remaining that concord plays a minor part in the language. Adjectives are inflected only for comparison and this has nothing to do with concord ; in the Verb but a few fragments remain of the older inflections, *viz.*, the terminations for the first and second persons singular of the present tense, while many of the Pronouns have become merged in common forms exhibiting no special mark of concord, as was shown in the preceding chapter.

It is far otherwise with languages which display a large number of inflections ; and the application of the rules of concord, and the learning of the methods of inflection to meet the requirements of these rules, constitute the main tasks in

the study of these languages. We may illustrate this by reference to Sanskrit wherein the Adjective may take seventy-two different forms in a complete declension, and all this solely to make the Adjective agree with its Noun. All that is of value in this for purposes of speech is accomplished in English by the simple expedient of putting the uninflected Adjective close to the Noun.

2. The main rules of Concord.

We treat of Concord in a general way in order that the reader may understand the subject and realise its importance. The rules of Concord, to a certain extent, vary from one language to another, and a particular rule cannot come into force where the necessary forms are absent. Most languages present idioms which appear to be contrary to the main rules in vogue, although there is usually some reason for them.

Stated in their most general form the rules of Concord are as follows :—

(*a*) Words in apposition must be in the Case of that to which they are appositive.

(*b*) Pronouns must agree with their antecedents in Gender, Number and Person.

(*c*) Verbs must agree with their Nominatives in Gender, Number and Person.

(*d*) Adjectives must agree with their Nouns, whether these be expressed or understood, in Gender, Number and Case.

3. Words in Apposition.

This rule calls for little comment ; appositional words are practically alternative names for the same thing, and therefore stand in the same relation to the remainder of the sentence, *i.e.*, they must be in the Case the construction demands, as are the Nouns to which they are appositive. The rule is not strictly observed in English in the only case in which it could operate, *i.e.*, where the determining Noun is in the Genitive Case with 's'. When two or more Nouns in the

Genitive come together, the mark of the Genitive is usually added to the last only, as 'Lloyd George the Premier's house'.

4. Pronouns.

The reason why concord of Pronouns is essential to the construction of the sentence has been already explained. The rule stated above applies to all Pronouns, whether they are of distinct form or are formed by inflection of a common base. The Case of a Pronoun is determined by the construction of the sentence or clause to which it belongs.

When the antecedent to a Pronoun is a single Noun of definite Gender, Number and Person, the application of the rule is a simple matter, but it is otherwise when the antecedent is composite, *i.e.* when the Subject contains several Nouns of varying Gender, etc. Some languages have distinct forms for Gender in the plural as well as in the singular and this complicates matters still further.

(*a*) GENDER.

When one Pronoun or one inflection serves for all genders in the plural, little difficulty is experienced; the concord for gender has disappeared. When the plural Pronouns are inflected for gender, they often follow the rule of the superior gender, *i.e.*, they are masculine rather than feminine, and feminine rather than neuter, when the composite subject contains Nouns of more than one gender. Where the composite antecedent denotes inanimate things of varying grammatical gender, the Pronoun is usually neuter. In the Indian languages a composite subject is often summed up by a neuter plural Pronoun, even when persons are included, and the rest of the sentence is then put in concord with this; *e.g.*, in translating "John, Mary and the cat are outside the house," an Indian language would insert a neuter plural Pronoun after 'cat' and make the Verb agree with this Pronoun.

(*b*) NUMBER.

As a composite antecedent must necessarily be plural, the Pronoun referring to that composite antecedent will naturally be plural also and no difficulty arises.

(*c*) PERSON.

The general rule is that the Pronoun should be in the first Person if there is a first person in the composite antecedent, in the second Person if there is a second person but no first, and in the third Person when neither a first nor a second is found in the antecedent. This is usually shortly expressed by saying that the Pronoun follows the superior person.

5. Verbs.

The terminations of Verbs which mark concord are really remnants of Pronouns, and the rule for Pronouns is applicable also to Verbs, although it is differently worded to cover a pronominal Nominative. It is this pronominal element in the inflected forms of the Verb which indicates the Copula, and where it is absent, in thought or in fact, the so-called Verb becomes an Adjective or Noun. In the classical languages of the Aryan family the distinction of gender is lost in the Verb, but it is retained in some of the modern languages of India in some tenses both in the singular and in the plural. The Semitic languages also exhibit it. The forms of the Verb available for the fashioning of concords do not therefore always coincide with those of the Pronouns, and the working of the rule given above is subject to this limitation, otherwise one rule would suffice for both.

6. Adjectives.

Adjectives are inflected for Person, only so far as they can be put in the Vocative Case. When used to qualify Pronouns in the first and second persons, predicatively or appositively, person is not marked. They cannot be used attributively with Pronouns.

As in the case of Pronouns, so too in the case of Adjectives, the rule for concord is simple of application when the determined Noun is in the singular number; the Adjective then

agrees with its Noun in Gender, Number and Case, whether it be used attributively, appositively or predicatively, or when the Noun is understood but not expressed. When the subject phrase includes several Nouns, many variations arise.

(*a*) GENDER.

When a composite subject phrase contains Nouns of varying Gender, the predicate Adjective may be put in the superior gender or in the neuter plural to agree with an inserted Pronoun. As attributive the Adjective will usually agree with the nearest Noun.

(*b*) NUMBER.

With a composite subject, predicative Adjectives are sometimes plural, but may be singular to agree with the last mentioned, or with the most important of the subject Nouns. Attributive Adjectives usually agree with the first Noun and are understood with the rest in proper concord.

(*c*) CASE.

An Adjective is put in the case of the Noun it determines. A group of Nouns standing in one relation to the rest of the sentence will naturally be in one Case, and the Adjective in agreeing with one agrees with them all. When used without Nouns, they agree with the Noun understood as if it were present.

It will be seen that the application of the rules of concord, when dealing with Adjectives, is likely to be somewhat complicated because the Adjective can be used in three positions. We have only mentioned a few cases in order to illustrate the working of the rule. The matter must be given close attention when an inflected language is studied, the more that the subject is often scantily treated.

We may add that in some Indian languages some Adjectives are used as Adverbs and are inflected for concord when so used. They are used to qualify Verbs and usually agree with the object Noun in Gender and Number (not in Case) when the Verb is transitive, and with the subject Noun when the Verb is intransitive; or they may be put in the Neuter Singular which is the special adverbial form in many languages.

CHAPTER IX.

THE ARTICLES.

1. The Nature and Use of the Articles.

Certain small words of adjectival force are sometimes placed in a class by themselves and named Articles. We treat of them separately because, as we shall see, they exercise a peculiar function, being indicative of the more general implication which all Adjectives involve, but which in true Adjectives is combined with a more specific meaning. The Articles in English are two, the Indefinite Article 'a' or 'an' and the Definite Article 'the.' An understanding of their use in English furnishes the clue to their use in other languages which employ them, but actual usage varies. The Indefinite Article is less frequently found than the Definite, and in languages which have the Definite Article but not the Indefinite, speaking quite generally, we may say that when a Noun is used without an Article, the case is one where English would employ the Indefinite Article. In Indian languages the demonstrative 'that' is sometimes used where English would employ 'the', and 'one' is used where English would employ 'a' or 'an', but in both cases it is the more emphatic meanings of the Article that are indicated.

2. The Grounds of their Use.

It is not altogether easy to bring all instances of the English use of the Articles under general rules, but in the great majority of instances usage is determined by the two facts, that Nouns are either singular or general names, and that general names may be used with denotative or connotative force. Hence it is that the same Noun will appear now with, and now without, an Article. The distinction between the denotation and the connotation of Nouns, as explained in Chapter III, must be thoroughly understood, as this distinction furnishes the clue to the use of the Articles, and it is their peculiar office to mark this distinction.

So far as the division of Nouns into singular and general names is concerned, the main rule is that *singular names do not take the Article and general names do.* When what was originally a singular Noun is found with an Article, it has become a general name. It is often said that the addition of an Article to singular Nouns converts them into general Nouns, but this hardly expresses the facts of the case; we should rather say that the Article is used, because the conception of what is intended by the Noun is a generalised conception. The rule given is applicable to Nouns in their primary significance, and does not apply to cases where, by use of Adjectives, the denotation of the subject phrase has been limited to one individual.

The foundation of the rule just given is as follows:—The Indefinite Article means 'each', 'each one', 'every', and these meanings imply other individuals of the same class. If a Noun is the name of but one individual, *i.e.* is a singular name, such a determination as the Article implies is superfluous. Similarly, the Definite Article cannot be used with a singular Noun, for its functioning is selective and denotative, marking off certain individuals of a class. The extension of a singular Noun cannot be made less or more, and the use of the Definite Article with such Nouns can serve no useful purpose.

The Articles then are used with general and class names only, and their use with these is determined by the fact that sometimes the *denotation* and sometimes the *connotation* of the name is uppermost in thought. The Definite Article emphasises the denotative significance and the Indefinite Article the connotative significance of the Noun: we might call them the denotative and the connotative Articles accordingly.

3. The Definite or Denotative Article.

This Article is used with general names both in the singular and in the plural, but not in the sense of denoting the whole of the class named. When the whole class is intended, another determining word is used, as "All the

students were present." The Article comes nearest to denoting the whole class, when it is employed with Adjectives used without Nouns, as "The good are praised," but even here 'the good' means a section of the whole class denoted by the omitted Noun 'men'.

The following are the principal uses in English ; the point to notice is the manner in which the denotation is defined.

(*a*) The most common use is that in accordance with the pronominal origin of the Article ; it then points back to something already mentioned, the portion of the class marked off by the preceding discourse, whether this consist of one or several individuals ; *e.g.* "I saw a bird on a tree and *the* bird had a yellow bill", *i.e.*, the particular bird I saw.

(*b*) A second use is seen in cases where some determining word or phrase is applied to the Noun in a way to mark it off from the remainder of the whole class, as "The German army is well organised", *i.e.*, this particular one of the armies considered.

(*c*) The Denotative Article is frequently employed when there are no actual determining words present in the sentence, and when there is no reference to any antecedent statement, as "The king is ill." There is nothing to show what king is intended, and the needed determination is furnished by habit and custom ; the thoughts of the hearer naturally turn to the individual he is accustomed to associate with the name, or with whom he is most concerned. Other instances are, 'the army', 'the moon', 'the library', as "Bring me a book from the library", *i.e.*, from the library from which I usually get my books.

(*d*) Another is seen in sentences like "The lion is a fierce animal", "The heart is a vital organ". We may call this the specific use of the Article, since it is the presence in thought of a larger group, of which the

Noun names a species, which furnishes the denotation. For example, in the second illustration we mean to say "The heart, considered as one of the organs of the body, is a vital one".

(*e*) Another use common in Greek and exemplified in English is seen in sentences like, "The milk ho! milk ho! of the milkman is a monotonous cry". This is usually called the Noun-making power of the Article, but it is better to suppose that the Article arises from the nature of the notion named by the phrase. It is really a use which can be explained by reference to (b) above. The seeming peculiarity arises from the fact that the phrase is descriptive and not a Noun in actual form.

(*f*) The Denotative Article is also frequently found where none of these explanations suffice, and where it might equally well have been omitted, or where a connotative Article might be used, as "The tears stood in his eyes", for "Tears stood in his eyes". The first sentence puts the emphasis on the concrete thing; in the second the emphasis falls upon the connotation; the first form is the more vivid and picturesque.

N. B.—Where a language has no Articles the considerations which determine the use of the Articles must be brought into play in translating.

4. The Definite Article with Geographical Names.

The use of the Definite Article with geographical names is very irregular; the following examples of the English use illustrate this. Usage varies from one language to another and it is always necessary to give the matter special attention when studying languages which employ the Articles;

Names of mountains when preceded by 'Mount' take no Article, as *Mount Etna, Mount Everest.*

When the word 'mountains' follows, or can follow, the Proper Noun, the denotative Article is used as '*the Alps*', '*the Andes*'.

Names of rivers take the Article, as '*the Nile*', '*the Ganges*'.

Names of countries, provinces and localities usually take no Article, but there are many exceptions.

Names of groups of islands take the Article, as '*the Molucca Islands*', '*the Andamans*'.

Names of ships take the Article, as '*the Warspite*', '*the Mongolia*'.

5. The Indefinite or Connotative Article.

This is used to indicate that the Noun is used connotatively; the idea of the kind is uppermost. For example in the sentence, "A boy has been run over", it is the kind of thing run over and not any particular boy that is indicated.

In accordance with this, the Indefinite Article is the Article of definition, stating what is true of each individual of a class, *e.g.*, "A ball is a spherical object", *i.e.* "All balls are spherical", "What is not spherical is not a ball".

This Article is also freely used with Nouns in the plural form when an aggregate is spoken of, as "He lived a hundred years", *i.e.*, for a period of such length.

In some cases the significance of this Article is that of its origin as derived from the word 'one', *e.g.*, 'three shillings a week'.

When it is desired to suggest the connotation of plural Nouns, no Article is used, as in "Dogs bark", *i.e.*, animals of this kind bark. Compare "Dogs bark", "All dogs bark", "Every dog barks", "A dog barks"; the meaning alters very little; what is true of one is true of all.

6. Absence of Articles.

When a language has no Indefinite Article but has a Definite Article, the significance of the former is usually conveyed by using the Noun with no Article. The actual requirement in this direction is that the distinction between the denotative and the connotative use of a Noun should be made clear, *i.e.*, there are but two cases to be provided for.

We may notice the rule in Greek, that when two Nouns are found with a Copula and both are in the Nominative Case, the one with the Article is usually the subject Noun and the one without is the predicate Noun; the former is used denotatively and the latter connotatively.

Other cases of the omission of the Article occur, but many are due to requirements of emphasis. For example "The horses, cows and sheep of the peasants were driven away", that is to say, the whole considered as one group, and "The horses, the cows and the sheep were driven away", *i.e.*, each group is considered separately.

Many instances occur where Prepositions are followed by Nouns with no Article, as 'by day', 'by night'; in such phrases the connotative force of the Noun is emphasised.

That the Article may rightly be considered to form a separate class of words is to be gathered from the fact that, when a language has no Articles, cases often occur where the question of whether or no an Article shall be used, or which Article shall be used, in translation, is not readily answered, which is as much as to say that an alternative choice of meanings is presented which the form of the sentence does not decide.

CHAPTER X

THE ADJECTIVE.

1. The Norm of the Predicate.

A point of prime importance for the understanding of the sentence is the recognition that the predicate notion is fundamentally adjectival, and can just as well be expressed by a Noun or Adjective as by a Verb. Failure to see this has been the cause of much confusion.

It is not essential that every predicate should express an activity of the subject, and predicates of activity do not, and

cannot, cover the whole ground of predication. If we call the Copula a predicate and a following Adjective or Noun its complement, we really have two predicate notions, one of existence and another of co-existence, and this when the subject is posited as an existing thing. If we say that in a sentence like "The man is good", 'good' is the complement of 'is', we must say the same of the Participle in a compound tense, as in "the man is running". 'Running' here is clearly the word expressing the notion which can be used attributively, and the difference between the predicates 'good' and 'running' is not a difference of functioning but one of meaning merely. The true test of the predicate is the possibility of transferring it to the attributive position, and this is possible because it is an Adjective. The Copula is not thus transferred, nor can a form of the Verb containing the Copula in itself be used singly as an attributive Adjective; it must form part of a clause. If, as was said above, a sentence could be supposed to contain two predicate notions, then it would be such that one notion could be denied and the other affirmed in the answer, and great confusion would arise. *E.g.* if in the sentence "The phoenix is a mythical bird" we have judgments of existence and of co-existence, then the sentence is true in one part and not in the other; the phoenix does not exist as a real bird, but the ideas of a phoenix and of mythical nature do co-exist or belong to one another.

That every predicate can be used attributively follows from the very nature of the sentence, which is just the affirmation or denial that the predicate notion belongs to the subject notion, and the naming of these qualifications or determinations is the peculiar function of all Adjectives. We may conclude then that the true norm of the predicate is not the Verb, but the Adjective, and grammarians practically admit this when they say, as they frequently do, that the Participle, *i.e.* the Verb divested of its copulative element, is an Adjective. The same conclusion follows from the fact that a dependent clause expressing an activity is a Noun,

Adjective or Adverb clause, but never a Verb clause. The functioning peculiar to the Verb, and that which justifies its being made a separate part of Speech, is its copulative functioning and not its significance of activity. The whole mistake is due to departure from the ground of division in the classification of the Parts of Speech; all other words are defined from their functioning, Verbs are defined by their significance. When in the remainder of this book we use the term 'Verb' we shall do so only when we speak of the finite forms in which the Copula is contained, or of the Copula itself.

In some of the Dravidian languages, pure Adjectives are not used as predicates, but are converted into Nouns by the addition of pronominal terminations. For example, Telugu would not say, "He is good", but "He is a good one", the 'one' being indicated by the pronominal termination of the masculine singular of the third Person. Such treatment of an adjective is obviously similar to that which converts a root of general significance but expressing no grammatical relation, into a finite Verb. This Dravidian idiom does not vitiate our argument; the derived Noun is still used connotatively, *i.e.* adjectivally.

Failure to recognise that the Adjective is the true norm of the predicate is probably due to the fact that the Adjective is not found to take the numerous inflections for tense, etc., found with the Verb. This appears to be a mere accident, for there is no logical reason why a word signifying a quality should not have some of them, even if, owing to its significance, it cannot take all of them. This section will be better understood when that on the Verb has been studied.

As already shown, when a Verb is divested of its copulative element it becomes a Participle or Adjective of action. The similarity of functioning of Adjectives and Participles extends to their attributive and appositive use. Owing to the absence of some possible Participles, the attributive activity is often expressed by a relative clause, but the clause is still adjectival in its functioning. We may notice that when an Ad-

jective or Participle is followed by adverbial qualifications it is, in English, put after the Noun qualified, in order to bring it as close to the Noun as possible, *e.g.*, 'the sitting man', but 'the man sitting in the chair'. In languages wherein the adverbial qualifications precede the word qualified, the Adjective, or Participle remains in the usual place, *e.g.*, the last phrase would be 'the in-the-chair-sitting man'. It may be noticed that some Dravidian languages cannot frame relative clauses and always use Participles as ordinary Adjectives.

2. Kinds of Adjectives.

An Adjective is usually defined as a word which qualifies a Noun ; this definition may be improved upon by saying that the Adjective is a word which expresses a determination of the thing named by the Noun. With general names the only function which all Adjectives alike perform is that of restricting or defining the extension of the name. Some do this directly and do this only, while others do it indirectly through statement of the specific quality of the portion considered. The fundamental division of Adjectives then, a division which has important results in the construction of the sentence, is that which divides them into the two classes of those which select or point out portions of a given generic or specific group without adding anything to the conception of the portion considered beyond what is already understood from the class name, and those which add to this conception by stating some characteristic or quality peculiar to the portion of the class considered. To the former class we give the name Quantitative or Denotative and to the latter the name Qualitative or Connotative, meaning by qualitative anything which imparts a distinctive character to the conception of the thing named.

I. Quantitative or Denotative Adjectives.

Those which specify the individual or group intended without indicating any characteristic additional to those connoted by the class name. It is Adjectives of this class only which can function as Pronouns.

(*a*) Adjectives of determinate number or quantity ; these are the Cardinal numbers, *one, three, twenty*, etc.

(*b*) Adjectives of indeterminate quantity, divided into:—

(i) *Universal, i.e.*, those which definitely exclude or include the whole class named by the Noun, but do not specify its exact extent; such are, *all, every, none*, etc.

(ii) *Particular, i.e.*, those which denote an indeterminate part only of the whole class named by the Noun, as *many, some, few*, etc.

(*c*) Demonstrative Adjectives.

Those which indicate things in some way defined or pointed out, as *this, that, these, those, such, yonder.*

(*d*) Distributive Adjectives.

Those which indicate individuals in a given group, each taken separately, as *each, every, either, neither.*

II. Qualitative or Connotative Adjectives.

Those which specify some characteristic of a portion of a class, additional to those connoted by the class name, and thus limit the extension of the name by confining it to a species or sub-class within a genus or higher class.

(*a*) Possessives and all Genitives of Nouns and Pronouns.

(*b*) Ordinal numbers denoting place in a serial order, as *first, twelfth, sixteenth*, etc.

(*c*) Multiplicatives, as *threefold, double, bivalvular*, etc.

(*d*) Adjectives of quality more strictly so called, *i.e.* those expressing sensible and inherent qualities of things, as *red, rough, flat*, etc.

(*e*) Adjectives of magnitude or degree, implying comparison with some ideal or customary standard, as *long, short, enormous*, etc.

(*f*) Adjectives of Action, *i.e.*, Participles, as *broken, discharged, revolving*, etc.

(*g*) Nouns used as Adjectives.

(*h*) Proper Adjectives formed from Proper Nouns, as *Roman*, *French*, etc.

(*i*) Adjectival phrases and clauses.

(*j*) Words originally Adverbs or Prepositions used as Adjectives.

We omit Interrogative and Relative Adjectives from this list, because so far as they are Adjectives they belong to one or other of the classes given.

3. The use of quantitative and qualitative Adjectives.

The significance of the above classification is seen in this that when, by means of a connotative or qualitative Adjective, a sub-class has been created, a denotative or quantitative Adjective can then be added to denote a certain portion of such species or sub-class. Thus in the phrase 'three blind men', 'blind' is qualitative and forms the sub-class 'blind men'; the quantitative Adjective 'three' then states how many of these are intended.

When the actual extent of the sub-class has been already defined, and it is desired to select or define a portion of such sub-class, the phrase defining the sub-class is expressed by a Partitive Genitive with the definite Article, and the form becomes 'three of the blind men'. 'Three blind men' means any three men who are blind; 'three of the blind men' means three of certain blind men already specified. In such phrases the Adjectives cannot be used in the reverse order; we cannot say 'blind three men.' This explains the phrase 'all the people' and others similar; the group is 'the people' defined by customary thought and the 'all' then denotes that the whole group is intended. It also explains a succession of Partitive Genitives, as 'three of the best of the men in the city'.

4. Adverbial force of Qualitative Adjectives.

As was shown in the section on the Subject, the Qualitative Adjective usually expresses an accidental quality of the thing named by the Noun, *i.e.*, a quality not implied in the

connotation of the name, since if it were so implied there would be no need to mention it. This explains a further characteristic of qualitative Adjectives. In a sentence like "The oily iron blackened my fingers", the cause of the blackening lies in the accidental quality 'oily', and the word thus supplies a ground for the predicate and has adverbial force; the predicate would not be appropriate to iron possessed of none but its essential qualities. This adverbial force of Adjectives is especially prominent in appositive Participles, and the section on these should be read in this connection. Denotative Adjectives have no such force.

N. B.—We are using the term Qualitative in its widest sense, *i.e.*, to mean any characteristic which can distinguish one individual from another of the same kind.

5. Adjectives with Proper Nouns.

Our remarks hitherto mainly refer to Adjectives when used with general names. When used with Abstract or Material Nouns these become general names, because the presence of a distinguishing characteristic implies other examples which have not the quality indicated by the Adjective.

When denotative Adjectives are employed with Proper Nouns, the Nouns have become general names, and this is often the case when connotative Adjectives are used with Proper Nouns, but sometimes it is not. A Proper Noun indicates one particular individual and has no essential connotation, but knowledge of the individual denoted makes it possible to frame judgments about him, and these judgments warrant the attributive use of the notion affirmed. The use of connotative Adjectives with such Nouns has the effect of directing the attention upon the quality mentioned, and so of withdrawing it from other known qualities, thus, as it were, reducing the intention of the Noun for the time being. For example in "the good John supports his parents" we practically say that the fact that John supports his parents is due to his goodness, and consideration of other characteris-

tics of John is largely excluded. The adverbial force of the Adjective, as explained in the preceding section, is obvious.

When an Adjective is thus used with a Proper Noun, the Noun often appears really to stand in the relation of opposition to another Noun understood, rather than to be the Noun directly qualified. For example in the sentence "My John is a good husband" it is not intended to differentiate 'John' from other Johns, as would be the case if the genitive directly qualified it ; the real meaning is "my husband (as compared with other husbands), who is named John, is a good husband". The sentence is intelligible to one who knows or guesses that the husband's name is John, but not to others.

We may notice that Adjectives signifying a quality connoted by a common Noun are often used with such a Noun ; this puts emphasis upon the quality specified, or calls the attention to it, to the partial exclusion of consideration of other known qualities.

6. Universal and Particular Adjectives.

The distinction drawn between Universal and Particular Adjectives of indeterminate quantity is of great importance for Logic, for the doctrine of the syllogism partly rests upon it. The distinction is applicable to all subject phrases, since these may be so worded as to include all members of the class named or only a portion of the class. It is of little importance in grammar, for it is a matter of significance only, leading to no grammatical results. Reason naturally clothes itself in words, and erroneous reasoning will appear either in the wrong use of terms or in faulty inference, but so long as the sentence says what the speaker intends to say, whether his thought be sound or not, it is correct from the point of view of grammar ; it is the actual judgment that is wrong, not the expression of it. The student will however do well to realise the distinction mentioned.

7. Nouns as Adjectives.

Nouns when used as Adjectives are employed with connotative force. A Noun is the name of a thing which is

presented as a bundle of qualities, and the use of a Noun as a qualificatory word is but a short way of saying that the object qualified by the Noun has the qualities connoted by the Noun, or such of them as are relevant to the matter in hand. It is therefore best to treat them in accordance with the function they fulfil, and to call them Adjectives. In most cases they may be looked upon as the equivalents of prepositional phrases from which the case form or preposition has fallen away. Many express a genitive relation, but instances are many where the relation is of another kind. It is of importance to notice that the qualifications expressed by Noun Adjectives are of a specially varied character, *e.g.*, 'a London watch' means one made in London in a way peculiar to London ; 'a London cabman' means one who drives in London ; 'a London accent' means speech which is cockney in accent.

8. Adverbs as Adjectives.

Certain Adverbs are found functioning as Adjectives, as 'the then king', 'the people there', etc. These are usually explained as arising from omission of another Adjective, as 'the then reigning king', but it is possible to think that in actual use, apart from explanation, the consciousness of ellipsis is absent, and 'then' is a pure Adjective. Compare the section on the Relatives and on prepositional phrases functioning as Adjectives.

9. Inflection of Adjectives.

(a) For Gender, Number and Case.

Adjectives in English have lost all inflections for concord, but in most languages of the Aryan group this is by no means the case. They may be found inflected for three Genders, two or three Numbers and for the usual Cases, and the declension of such Adjectives constitutes one of the main labours in learning such languages. See Chapter IX.

In some of the Teutonic languages, *e.g.* Anglo-Saxon and modern German, Adjectives are declined

in two ways, called the weak and the strong declensions. These in the main arise from the distinction on which our classification is based, and present no difficulty to those who understand that distinction.

In the predicate position after the Copula, the Adjective (and the Participle) agrees with the Nominative of the sentence in Case. This fact is usually stated in the form, "The Verb 'to be' takes the same case after it as before it", but the concord has nothing to do with the Copula, which exercises no governing power; the Adjective qualifies the Nominative and is put in the same Case to show that it does so. This particular concord is not confined to the Verb 'to be' but is found with other Copulas as "He appears tall", and the appearance of this concord is the simplest indication that the Verb is being used as a Copula and not as a notional Verb. This is further evidence that our objection to 'complements of the predicate' is well-founded.

When used to express the result of an activity after an Accusative which is the direct object of a Factitive Verb, the Adjective of course agrees with the Accusative, *e.g.*, in "I painted the cart red," 'red' is in agree ment with 'cart', not with 'I'.

(b) For Comparison.

Adjectives of Quality more strictly such, *i.e.*, those included in (*d*) (*e*) (*f*) of Qualitatives given above, are inflected to indicate varying degree or intensity of the quality they signify. This is called Comparison because the degree or intensity of a quality is determined by comparing it with some other definite exhibition of the same quality, or with an ideal standard existent in the mind. The form of the sentence indicates whether the comparison is made with the one or the other.

Three degrees of comparison are usually distinguished, the Positive, the Comparative and the Superlative.

The Positive usually states the quality simply, with little or no suggestion of comparative intensity, except in the case of Adjectives of Magnitude. If a quality be attributed to one of several objects by way of comparison in a greater measure than to one or several objects placed over against the first, when only two spheres of comparison are intended, this greater measure is expressed by the Comparative of the word of quality. If the quality is common to a number of objects, and such objects, owing to varying degree of possession of such quality, fall into more than two groups or spheres of comparison, then the Superlative is used to ascribe this quality to one of several of them in the highest degree.

The general use of three degrees of Comparison has led to their being looked upon as somehow normal, but this is only a superficial appearance. The Positive usually expresses no comparison, and when the comparison is made with a definite object or objects, the Comparative and the Superlative really do the *same* work. If we compare the following sentences:—"My dog is bigger than any of his," and "My dog is the biggest of all the dogs of the town," we can see that the inflection of the Adjective merely indicates superiority of size; the degree or extent of this superiority is not determined by the inflection, but by the extent of that with which comparison is made, and this is determined by the wording of the phrase expressing the object or objects with which the comparison is made. One termination would do the work of both.

10. Methods of indicating Comparison.

Comparison is effected in three ways :—

(*a*) By addition of special terminations to the Adjective, as 'great', 'greater,' 'greatest'; the inflected form being treated as a distinct word and declined according to the rules of concord in vogue.

(*b*) By use of Adverbs of degree, usually 'more' and 'most' or their equivalents.

(*c*) By putting the name of that with which comparison is made in the Ablative Case, or by attaching to it an Ablative Preposition and stating the quality of the thing in the Positive degree, *e.g.* "Than my house his is big", (Comparative) and "From all the houses his is big", (Superlative). This last method is not employed in English, but is the usual one in Indian languages. The 'than' after comparatives in English is probably best taken as a Preposition, the equivalent of an Ablative Case form.

The fact that an Adverb can be used instead of an inflection shows that the inflections for comparison function adverbially, as of course all modifications of the meaning of an Adjective must do.

11. Comparison with an ideal standard.

By this we mean adverbial qualifications of an Adjective to indicate that the quality named by it exceeds or is less than what habit or experience has led us to consider a normal standard. The degree of a quality may vary indefinitely, and the Adverbs used to indicate this variation are numerous; we may mention, *slightly, fairly, particularly, notably, very, rather, extremely, indefinitely, scarcely*, etc. Such Adverbs may also be used to qualify Adjectives already inflected for comparison, as "He is slightly taller than his brother".

Superlatives are often strengthened by annexing to them a Genitive of the homogeneous whole of objects of the same kind as, "the bravest of the brave"; the Genitive is Partitive. Superlatives can be used when the comparison is with an ideal standard as 'most dear children', 'very good paper'.

Many adjectives are of such significance that they are really incapable of modification for degree, but they are found treated as so capable in rhetorical and poetical writings, as 'the chiefest'.

We may notice the English form in 'ish', as 'brownish', which indicates some small degree of a quality and therefore a comparison.

12. Apposition.

We have already explained Apposition in the section on the predicate, but add a few remarks here, now that the functioning of Adjectives has been explained.

Nouns and Adjectives are said to be in apposition when they denote the same thing as the Noun to which they are appended. The use of appositional forms arises from a consciousness on the part of the speaker that the terms he uses do not sufficiently define his conception for his hearer, or that the subject word or phrase does not contain determinations sufficient to render the predicate of the sentence appropriate or intelligible; he therefore adds words, phrases or clauses, which, in that they are determinative of the subject, are attributive and, in that they introduce new matter into the conception denoted, are predicative, although the expression of this new matter is not the main purpose of the sentence. The Adjective therefore is the real form of Apposition, and Nouns are used appositionally, because their connotation gives them adjectival force. Such words will naturally be in the Case of that to which they stand in appositive relation.

The use of appositional words may be so habitual that they become blended with the related word in one effort of utterance and take on an attributive character as, 'Lord Clive', 'Archbishop Cranmer'.

Appositional words are most commonly found with Proper Nouns which, because they are non-connotative and are given to more than one person, frequently require to be more strictly defined, *e.g.* George—the king—my son—the patron saint of England—the First.

Appositive words naturally follow the words they determine, and the word appositionally determined is usually to be

regarded as the Nominative of the sentence, but the order may be reversed, the appositional word becoming the real thing considered, *e.g.* "In the most important point, my reputation, I was greatly injured".

Words used appositionally naturally carry with them such necessary qualifications as they require for the complete expression of the notion intended, *i.e.*, object nouns and adverbial qualifications; the whole expression must then be looked upon as indicating the appositive notion, *e.g.*, "The King, gracious as he was to his friends, was severe to his enemies"; "The captain, calling his men together, told them of his plans". This means that Participial phrases so used are Appositional.

The fact that appositional words, phrases or clauses are predicative in character makes it possible to use them freely to add to a sentence new matter which is not actually necessary for an understanding of the sentence itself. Poets freely make use of this device to give variety and terseness to their diction.

Something of the nature of apposition takes place when, for any word whose meaning may not be understood by the hearer, another is substituted of the same meaning, as "The corpse was exhumed—dug up again—for examination."

CHAPTER XI

THE VERB.

1. The Functioning of the Verb.

We repeat what we have already said in the Chapter on the Adjective. The justification for making the Verb a separate Part of Speech is that it fulfils a peculiar function in the sentence, and function is the ground of grammatical analysis. The definition of Verbs commonly given is a definition based on meaning, and is erroneous since it does not

exclude Nouns and Adjectives (Participles) expressing activity, and because all Verbs do not express activity. The Verb is the word of the sentence which states the relation of the predicate to the subject, and this it does either as a separated element, or, when the predicate notion is expressed by an inflected tense, by means of a termination or inflection appended to the predicate word. The notion of activity expressed by the Verb is adjectival. Whether the Copula appears as a separate word or not, it must be looked upon as the special function of the Verb, and when a form of the word of activity lacks this element, it becomes an Adjective or a Noun. Those forms only of a Verb which exhibit, or might exhibit, the mark of the copula, that is to say, the finite forms, are truly Verbs.

2. The Separated Copula.

English presents the Copula as a separate element in a marked degree, for the tenses most commonly employed are the so-called Compound Tenses. English grammar is said to be simple because of the paucity of inflections, and the inference is often made that it therefore fails in delicacy of expression, but the forms of English are, in most cases, really analyses of the inflected classical forms and, when properly understood, furnish a sufficient insight into their meaning. In the matter of Moods and Tenses especially, English is richer than almost any other language, as we shall presently see, and this is mainly due to the separation of the copula from the predicate.

It is hardly possible to say that in the passage from the inflectional to the analytical stage, anything of value has been lost, or that the inflectional languages can express relations which English cannot do, although opinions regarding the merits of rival forms may differ. Whether grammar should be studied from the stand-point of an inflectional or of an analytical language is a question of method, and since grammar is primarily an analysis of speech forms, it is not

unwise to study it through the medium of a language which presents many facts ready analysed. This analysis is itself the result of an unconscious desire to achieve a clear and simple form of expression.

3. Kinds of Verbs.

An exhaustive classification of Verbs according to their significance as expressing predicates of activity has not been made, and we do not propose to supply the omission, but the student must remember that the significance of a Verb often has peculiar results, both in the formation of sentences and in the creation of special idioms. The following are some of these classes :—

Verbs of *giving* or *handing on* ;
Verbs of *asking* ;
Verbs of *commanding* ;
Verbs denoting *sense perception* ;
Verbs denoting *activity which produces new conditions in the object affected* ; (Factitive.)
Verbs expressing *emotion* ;
Verbs expressing *activity of thought* ;
Verbs of *incomplete predication*.

It must be noticed that these various groups of Verbs represent variations of significance in the adjectival predicate notion, and what flows from this may also be applicable to Adjectives and Nouns of similar meaning ; the word of activity must carry with it what its significance naturally demands.

It may be well here to warn the student of language that he must beware of translating a Verb by its nearest apparent equivalent in another language. Misunderstanding of the exact meaning of a Verb is a fruitful source of failure to understand its uses. The majority of Verbs can be translated into their precise equivalents in other languages, but there is always a residue which cannot be so translated, and these must be carefully noted. The points to notice are whether the Verb in its primary significance is Transitive or Intransitive, Active or Passive, and whether it involves the predicate or is only copulative.

4. Transitive and Intransitive Verbs.

On the ground of a broad difference in their significations, Verbs may be divided into :—

Transitive Verbs; those expressing an activity which takes effect upon some object;

Intransitive Verbs; those expressing an activity which does not pass beyond the agent.

This distinction really applies to all words expressing activity, *i.e.*, to Nouns and Adjectives of action as well as to Verbs, but it is of special importance in connection with Verbs, because the forms of the tenses in some languages differ for the two classes. Some languages employ a special method for transforming an intransitive into a transitive or causative Verb, usually by a modification of the root or base; the derived form is then treated as an independent Verb.

5. Intransitives for Transitives and the reverse.

The distinction between Intransitive and Transitive Verbs is not always very clearly drawn and cases occur where one takes on the character of the other.

(*a*) An Intransitive is of the nature of a Transitive :—

(i) When the result of the activity is made its object; the Verb is then followed by the Internal Accusative, as "Let them die the death".

(ii) When the activity is referred to an object independent of it but yet immediately affected by it, as "He sits a horse well".

(iii) When the notion of the activity is taken as factitive in its reference to an object, *i.e.*, as effecting a result cognate with that expressed by the Verb, as "The enemy rained shells upon the trenches", *i.e.*, caused a shower of shells to fall.

(iv) When by the addition of a Pronoun to a verb a reflexive meaning is produced, as "Sit thee down".

(*b*) A Transitive Verb is of the nature of an Intransitive :—

(i) When no appropriate object is stated ; the emphasis then falls upon the activity as expressing a qualification of the agent, although an object cannot really be absent from such activity, *e.g.*, "Fire burns", omitting to say what it burns, but it must burn something.

(ii) When the activity can take effect upon no other than the agent itself, as "I will prove more faithful than any", *i.e.*, 'prove myself', but the notion is not strictly reflexive.

(iii) When the activity seems to be imputed to an agent which is really the object of the activity, as "My books do not sell well".

INFLECTION OF VERBS.

Verbs are inflected for Conjugation, Voice, Mood, Tense, Phase of Action, Gender, Number and Person, and what has independent significance in these inflections must receive expression in languages which have lost them. Those for Gender, Number and Person are superfluous, since they but repeat what is already stated in the Nominative ; they serve to mark the copula, but this could quite well be accomplished by one special form without the elaborate concords.

Derived forms, *i.e.*, Participles and Nouns of activity are inflected for Case, but these are not true Verbs according to our definition. Verbs cannot be inflected for Case ; their concord with their Nominatives is pronominal and not adjectival.

6. Conjugation.

The term Conjugation is used primarily to denote the method employed in inflecting the Verb through all its Moods and Tenses. In most languages Verbs are grouped according to certain peculiarities in the form of their bases which lead

to variations in the method of inflection, and the term 'Conjugation' denotes these various groups. As so used the term implies no modification of meaning. In Latin for example, there are four conjugations distinguished by the characteristic vowels of their bases ; in Sanskrit there are ten, some of which convey differences of significance while others do not. Corresponding to these in the Semitic languages are the peculiarities arising from the presence of weak or doubled consonants in the root. The English counterpart is the division of Verbs into the two classes of *strong* and *weak* Verbs, according as the past Tense is formed by internal modification of the root or by addition of the syllable 'ed'. This is a prominent feature in the Teutonic branch of the Aryan languages and is sufficiently explained in any ordinary grammar.

The term conjugation is also employed to denote modifications of the root prior to inflection for Mood and Tense, modifications which impart a new significance and create what may be looked upon as independent Verbs, as for example, the Causal Conjugation in Sanskrit and Marathi, the Desiderative and Frequentative Conjugations in Sanskrit and Latin, etc., etc. This kind of modification is freely employed and forms a very prominent feature in Semitic languages ; for example, in Hebrew the following forms of a Verb are commonly found, *Kal,* the simple Verb, *Niphal,* its reflexive or passive ; *Piel,* an intensive form and *Pual* its passive ; *Hiphil,* a causal form and *Hophal* its passive ; and *Hithpael,* the reflexive. Each form is inflected throughout for Mood and Tense, and the force of the conjugational modification is carried into derivative forms, *viz.,* Nouns and Adjectives. It will be seen that these forms do not denote a regular sequence of meanings ; some are Voice forms, while others denote what in English would be expressed by a separate Adverb or by a Verb of incomplete predication. Other forms are found, but the above are the most common and suffice for illustration.

We may sum up by saying that the term 'conjugation' denotes the various inflections which Verbs undergo as they fall into distinct classes according to the form of their roots, and also the act of making these inflections in due order. With a qualifying Adjective the term is extended to include modifications of the root which introduce a new significance into it, previous to inflection for Mood and Tense.

7. On the Copula.

Before discussing other inflections of the Verb it is necessary to define more closely the relation of the Copula to the Participle in the so-called Compound Tenses. Adhering to our contention that the separated Copula is the result of an unconscious but mainly correct analysis of the inflected form, we see that what have been left to the Participle in an analytic tense are the inflections for Voice and Phase of action, both of which express adverbial modifications of the notion of activity, while Mood, Time, Gender, Person and Number have been transferred to the Copula. Where concord of Adjectives is possible, Participles retain the inflections for Gender, Number, and Case, but these are adjectival concords, and not the pronominal concords which mark the Copula element in the Verb.

Of these inflections, those for Voice, Mood, Time and Phase of Action, are of distinct significance ; those for Gender, Number and Person are significant only as relating the Verb to its Nominative.

The substitution of a few simple Copulas for the numerous forms found in inflected languages, forms which may vary greatly from one conjugation to another, is obviously a great gain in simplicity, and has resulted in the discarding of many unnecessary concords. A further advantage is that it has made possible the formation of additional useful Moods and Tenses, and also enables the speaker to emphasise the Copula or the Predicate at will, and this was impossible when both were included in one inflected form. (See also the section on the Interrogatives, and that on Phase of Action.)

VOICE.

By Voice is meant the modification of a Verb or a Participle to indicate the relation of the activity to the subject of the sentence.

The Voices found are three in number, the Active, the Passive, and the Middle, but the last named is very uncommon.

8. The Active Voice.

A sentence is said to be in the Active Voice when the Nominative of the sentence is also the agent of the activity denoted by the Verb or Participle. The term has been extended to include all sentences wherein the same order of ideas is preserved, even when the predicate does not denote activity but a static quality, as in sentences with Noun or Adjective predicates. Since the Active is the normal form of expression in all languages, it is not necessary to say more about it.

9. The Passive Voice.

The Passive Voice probably arose out of a practical need. Many cases occur where the object of an activity and the kind of activity are known, but the agent is not, and the conveyance of such information is often desirable. This is neatly effected by giving the Verb a form which reverses the meaning of the predicate of activity, *i.e.*, which states that the subject suffers the activity and does not perform it.

When the actual agent of the activity is known, the passive construction may still be preserved, and the Noun of the agent is then put in the Instrumentative Case, or an equivalent preposition is employed, and the result is not a change in the meaning but in the form of the sentence, with a slight difference of emphasis and the added advantage of variety of expression. There is no difference in meaning between "I struck him" and "He was struck by me".

The means employed to indicate the Passive Voice are varied. Sanskrit and the Semitic languages make use of conjugational modifications of the root ; Latin and Greek indicate

it by special terminations; some of the modern Indian languages break up the form as it were, using a Verb signifying 'to suffer' and expressing the actual activity by a Noun or Adjective, *e.g.* 'I was beaten' becomes in Telugu 'I suffer a beating', and in Marathi 'I went beaten'.

In English but one inflected form remains to indicate the Passive Voice: this is the Perfect Participle, which, in all positions except the predicate position after 'have', and perhaps there also, is Passive. The Imperfect Participle in 'ing' is sometimes used passively as in 'the house is building', *i.e.* 'is being built', but the usage is not likely to establish itself. The forms of the Copula present nothing that is Passive, and this is as it should be, since the Passive Voice is a modification of the adjectival notion of activity; but when these forms are used with the Passive Participle, they are modified to include the element of Phase of Action, which, in the Passive Participle is absent, because the 'ed' of the Participle then indicates the Passive Voice and not completed action or past time; *e.g.* 'I am loved' is just the passive equivalent of the active 'I love', and there is no suggestion of completed action.

10. Active into Passive.

The only Verbs which rightly permit of the Active sentence being given a Passive form are Transitive Verbs, since these only have true direct objects, but the use has been extended to Intransitives with an Internal Accusative in the Active Voice, this Accusative becoming the Nominative of the passive sentence in the usual way; *e.g.* "They fought a battle" becomes "A battle was fought", although it is obvious that the battle suffered nothing.

The use is further extended to sentences of the form "They trifled with me", which in the Passive becomes "I was trifled with by them". The Preposition of the Active sentence becomes an Adverb in the Passive sentence and is taken with the Verb, while the Noun of the prepositional phrase becomes the Nominative of the sentence.

When a Verb in the active sentence governs two Accusatives, or an Accusative and a Dative of the indirect object, either of these may become the Nominative of the passive sentence :—

"*I asked him his name*".

"*He was asked his name by me*".

"*His name was asked by me*".

"*I gave him a book*".

"*He was given a book by me*".

"*A book was given to him by me*".

When the Verb in the active is factitive and takes two Accusatives, the direct Accusative can become the Nominative of the corresponding passive, but the secondary predicate cannot ;

"*I made him captain*".

"*He was made captain by me*".

Not "*Captain was made him by me*".

11. The Middle Voice.

The primary meaning of the Middle Voice seems to have been reflexive, but it also expresses an activity which redounds to the advantage or disadvantage of the subject, *i.e.* it expresses a Dative of Interest, and this is a meaning which may shade off into something very indefinite. Greek and Sanskrit have special terminations for the Middle, but in both languages the distinction between the Active and the Middle has become much obscured, and it is sometimes difficult to detect any middle significance in the Middle form.

The reason why the Middle is not found in analytical languages is that the form does not indicate any change in the notion of activity, but only a particular object of that activity, and when, as in English, this object receives separate expression, the Verb appears in the active form ; *e.g.* the Greek *tuptomai* may be taken to mean " I strike myself", or "I strike for myself"; the English Verb in both cases is Active. The so-called Middle is not therefore true to the definition of Voice given above.

The forms in English which are most nearly equivalent to the Middle voice are those wherein a Reflexive Pronoun, or a Personal Pronoun used reflexively, is found, as "Wilfred roused him to reply." Verbs expressing emotion have a similar Pronoun after them, which is to be taken as a Dative of Interest and the equivalent of the Middle, as "I fear me much".

Latin has no inflected forms for the Middle, but there are certain Verbs which, while passive in form, are active in meaning; these may possibly indicate an older Middle.

12. The Prayogs in Indian languages.

Indian grammarians explain the construction of sentences in the Aryan languages in a peculiar way. In Marathi, which we may take as an example, there is no inflected form for the past aorist tense of transitive Verbs, and the lack is made good by the use of the Passive Participle, following a common Sanskrit idiom.

In such sentences the object Noun of the Active Verb becomes the Nominative, the passive Participle is made to agree with it in adjectival concord, and the agent is put in the Instrumentative Case; *e.g.* "I broke the window", becomes "the window (was) broken by me"; this is called the *Object Construction*, because the object of the activity is the Nominative of the sentence, and the construction is clearly the equivalent of the English passive.

When the object of the activity is a person, or sometimes when it is a thing, and the Noun denoting it would therefore be in the Dative Case of the direct object in an active sentence, the *Neuter Construction* is employed. The Nominative is an indefinite 'it' expressed or understood, the Participle is in adjectival concord with this, the object Noun remains in the Dative, and the Noun of the agent is put in the Instrumentative, *e.g.* "I hit him", becomes in Marathi, "It was hit to him by me". The construction is obviously the Impersonal of English.

To distinguish the ordinary active construction from these, it is called the *Subject Construction.* It is not easy to see how this view of the sentence arose, but it is probably due to a cause similar to that which has lead to the English Passive Participle being treated as active in the Perfect tenses. The constructions mentioned are used in other Moods and Tenses.

MOOD.

13. The Nature of Mood.

A sentence is a statement that the determination expressed by the predicate does or does not belong to the thing named by the subject ; the manner or degree of assertion or denial is indicated by the words or inflections which do the work of predicating, *i.e.*, by the Copula. The following groups of sentences may be compared :—

1.	You are happy.	You are writing	You are a student.
2.	You may be happy.	You may be writing.	You may be a student.
3.	May you be happy.	May you be writing.	May you be a student.

The subject and predicate in each of these groups is the same, but in (1) the union of the predicate with the subject is affirmed, in (2) it is treated as doubtful, and in (3) it is spoken of as desired. Such variations in the manner of relating the two terms of a proposition, *i.e.* the subject and predicate, to each other, are what is meant by Mood, whether this be brought about by use of special inflections, of modal auxiliaries, or by means of modal Adverbs. Since the sentence is always the expression of the opinion of the speaker regarding the relation of the predicate to the subject, whether that opinion be true or false, we may look upon Mood as the expression of the subjective element in the sentence.

Mood is very much a matter of emphasis. When the purpose of the sentence is to relate a predicate to a subject in a particular way, this relation is expressed by Mood, but if the emphasis falls upon this relation, it is expressed by a

Verb of suitable meaning, and what was the predicate in the modal sentence becomes the object infinitive after such Verb. For example, "He may go," is Permissive, 'go' is the predicate and 'may' relates the predicate to the subject as a permitted activity, but if we put the stress on the permission and say "He is permitted to go," 'permitted' becomes the predicate notion and 'to go' its object, and the sentence has become Indicative. This explanation should be carefully noted, for few languages have so many distinct Moods as English has, and the needed meaning is usually conveyed by sentences of the form specified. The Verb substituted for the modal auxiliary is usually a Verb of incomplete predication and the section on these may be read in this connection.

The following illustrate these remarks :—

He may go... ... He is permitted to go.
He should go ... He ought to go.
He can go ... ... He is able to go.
He shall go... ... He will be compelled to go.

The variations in the form of affirmation expressed by the Moods are quite common and must be expressed in some way. Mood cannot be properly understood if the attention is confined to those forms only for which special inflections are provided. An assertion of possibility is not an assertion of fact, whatever may be the means employed to express it.

14. Varieties of Mood.

It might perhaps be possible to construct an exhaustive scheme which would include all possible varieties of Mood, but we confine ourselves to those which can be detected in English, since they comprise all the recognised Moods of other languages, and their explanation will teach the student all he needs to know. These Moods are formed, some by inflection of the Verb, and the remainder by aid of the auxiliaries *shall, will, should, would, may, might, can, could*, and *must*.

In the classical languages one form may be used in several meanings and the context usually decides which of these is

intended, but it is a distinct improvement to have these meanings clearly defined, as for the most part they are in English, but even in that language the process has hardly gone far enough, for some auxiliaries bear more than one meaning.

The predicate is related modally to the subject in the following ways :—

As asserted........	Indicative	*He writes.*
As commanded.....	Imperative.......	*Write.*
As petitioned.......	Precative........	*Let him write.*
As desired..........	Benedictive......	*May he write.*
As determined	Determinative...	*I will write.*
As compelled.......	Compulsive......	*He shall write.*
As permitted.......	Permissive......	*He may write.*
As an idea only.....	Subjunctive	*If he write.*
As a possibility......	Dubitative	*He may write.*
As a capacity.......	Potential........	*He can write*
As an incumbency..	Obligative......	*He should write.*
As necessitated......	Necessitative	*He must write.*
As a conviction	Apodictive	*He must write.*

To these we may add two more, the Infinitive and the Negative as they are called in some grammars. These are not true Moods and we must justify their exclusion before proceeding to discuss the Moods in detail.

15. The Modal Auxiliaries.

The Modal Auxiliaries were originally Verbs of incomplete predication used with Infinitives as objects. Most of them are defective in tense forms and are used with various meanings :

(*a*) SHALL.

'Shall' is a *Tense* Auxiliary when used to denote future time simply in the first person of Assertive sentences, and in the first and second persons in Interrogative sentences, as " I shall go," " Shall you go ? "

It is a *Modal* Auxiliary when it takes the place of 'will' in those cases where 'will' is used to express future

time; it then expresses *compulsion* as well as future time, as—

"He shall be taught to control himself".

The equivalent Verb of incomplete predication is 'to be compelled'.

(*b*) WILL.

'Will' is a *Tense* Auxiliary when used to denote future time simply in the second and third person of Assertive sentences and in the third person of Interrogative sentences, as "You will go", "Will he go?"

It is a *Modal* Auxiliary expressing a determination of the speaker or agent, as well as future time, when it is used instead of 'shall' in places where 'shall' indicates future time simply. Its corresponding Verb of incomplete predication is 'to be determined.'

The difficulty often experienced in the use of 'will' is due to the fact that it is substituted for 'shall' from motives of politeness, and signifies agreement with a spoken or implied request. Such considerations are often of a very delicate kind, and a foreigner finds it difficult to realise them.

(*c*) SHOULD.

'Should' is used as the *Past Tense* of 'shall' in indirect narration, as "He said he should go"; *i.e.* He said, "I shall go".

It is used as *Subjunctive* of 'shall' in conditional sentences, as "If he should return in time, let me know".

It is used as a *Modal* Auxiliary in all times to express *ethical necessity or propriety*.

"He should have gone yesterday".

"We should get home as fast as we can".

The corresponding Verb of incomplete predication is 'ought'.

(*d*) WOULD.

'Would' is used as *Past Tense* of 'will' in indirect narration, as "I said I would do it at once".

It is used as *Subjunctive* of 'will' in conditional sentences, as "If the rain had come in time, there would have been a good crop."

It is used *modally*, expressing determination, in sentences like, "He would not listen to me".

Another use is seen in sentences like," He would waste his time and then complain that things were not done". It then signifies habitual action in past time, and its corresponding Verb of incomplete predication is 'to be accustomed.'

(*e*) MAY.

'May' is used in present and future time to express a simple *possibility or doubt* (Dubitative) as, " He may not be willing to do as you say".

It is used to express a *permission* (Permissive), as "You may leave my service whenever you wish".

It is used to indicate *a wish* (Benedictive), as " May you live to be a hundred".

It is used in dependent clauses in present and future time to express a purpose, as " The gun is fired in order that all may be warned." This use is an adaptation of the use first mentioned.

'May' is also Subjunctive in Present and Future Tenses.

(*f*) MIGHT.

'Might' is used as *Past Tense* or *Subjunctive* of 'may' in all the meanings specified above, and also as a *substitute* for 'may' in present and future time when the possibility suggested is made more emphatic as—

" He may come to-morrow".

" He might come to-morrow".

Examples of other uses are :—

" He might not have done it in time".

" If he had known he might still have hesitated".

" I told him he might leave my service whenever he wished".

"I asked that the matter might be well considered".
"The time was fixed so that all might be ready".

(*g*) CAN.

'Can' is used in Present and Future time to express a potentiality or ability to perform an action, and is sometimes almost the equivalent of 'may' indicating a simple possibility, *e.g.* "He can walk six miles an hour".

(*h*) COULD.

'Could' is used as Past Tense and Subjunctive of 'can',
"He said that they could begin at once".
"If the results were known we could proceed with further plans".

(*i*) MUST.

'Must' is used in all times and expresses a circumstantial necessity or an opinion amounting to a practical certainty;
"They must have gone early". Apodictive.
"The advertisement must be in the papers to-morrow". Necessitative.

The corresponding Verbs of incomplete predication are, Necessitative, 'to be necessary', and Apodictive, 'to be certain'.

16. The Infinitive Mood.

This cannot be looked upon as a Mood for the simple reason that it has nothing to do with the form of the judgment as explained above, but is always a Noun of action and functions as a Noun in the sentence. For its real character see the section on the Infinitive under Nouns of action.

This is the place to complete what we have to say regarding the distinction commonly made between the finite and the infinite forms of the Verb. This distinction is based on the fact that some forms are inflected to agree with the Nominative of the sentence, while others are not. The former are the so-called finite forms and, as we have already shown,

are Verbs in their peculiar functioning ; it is only as some forms indicate the copula and others do not that the distinction is of any practical importance. Participles are Adjectives and Infinitives are Nouns, and viewed in isolation from any context, are modified for Voice and Phase of action only, but when they are used in an organised sentence, their time is determined by their relation to the time of the sentence, and this relation is indicated by Phase of action. The subject of a Participle is the Nominative of the sentence, or some other expressly mentioned, and its dependence on this is usually indicated by adjectival concords ; when so determined its so-called infinite character has disappeared. The conception of finite and infinite forms may therefore be given up as of no value.

17. The Negative Mood.

Forms of the Verb to which this name is given are found in grammars of the Dravidian languages, but these forms are not modal, because the idea of negation runs parallel with the idea of affirmation through all Moods and Tenses, and may equally well be applied to Participles and Nouns derived from the root.

We may say here that the chief defect of grammars of the Indian languages is their failure properly to differentiate between the various forms of the Verb ; it is usual to find that the Moods and Tenses of Saṁskrit are not properly distinguished, and as happens in other departments of the science, present day grammarians are apt to think the tradition cannot be improved upon.

The word 'not' which commonly marks the negative judgment is best looked upon as part of the copula itself, rather than as an Adverb qualifying the affirmative copula, and the Dravidian forms support this view. It is hardly possible to say that a word or form which takes away the whole meaning of another qualifies it adverbially. The negative judgment is usually the result of a simple percep-

tion, which is expressed by a direct denial, and not by the negation of an affirmation. Our remarks on Mood, etc., will be applicable to both affirmative and negative sentences.

The true Moods may be roughly divided into the three classes of the *Fact* Mood, the *Will* Moods and the *Thought* Moods; the first expresses what the speaker looks upon as matter of fact, those of the second class express the predicate as related to the subject through some activity of the will, those of the third class relate the predicate to the subject as a conception, and imply such doubt or contingency as makes assertion of actuality impossible.

18. The Indicative Mood. The Fact Mood.

This is the Mood of most frequent occurrence, because the business of life is mainly concerned with what is known to be actual or thought to be so, and the Mood usually expresses what is commonly accepted. It must however be looked upon as really modal according to our definition, for what the speaker asserts as matter of fact is not necessarily true; he gives us his opinion.

It is in the Indicative Mood that the elaboration of Tenses has mainly taken place and our remarks on these will follow later. So far as its modal force is concerned there is little to say. It is necessary to distinguish the Indicative Mood from categorical sentences generally, *e.g.*, "He may have gone" is a categorical sentence, but it is not in the Indicative Mood; the speaker asserts that he is doubtful regarding the actual facts.

THE WILL MOODS.

These are the Moods of command, entreaty, blessing, cursing, etc., all denoting some determination of the will on the part of the speaker or of others, tending to bring about the suggested relation of the predicate notion to the subject notion, *i.e.*, to make a suggested qualification of the subject actual. They include all the various forms of Petitionary sentences, together with the Determinative, Compulsive and the Permissive.

19. The Imperative.

This is usually given in English grammars as follows :—

	SINGULAR.	PLURAL.
1.	Let me do.	Let us do.
2.	Do.	Do.
3.	Let him do.	Let them do.

A glance at these forms shows that they are all really in the second person, for the Pronouns in the first and third persons are Accusatives to the imperative 'let', while the 'do' is an object Noun after 'let'. This is in accordance with the obvious fact that a command must be addressed to a hearer in the second person. The third person is usually expressed by a Future Tense, when the hearer of the command is only the bearer of it to some other person, *e.g.*, a general may give an order, "The batteries will take up the position specified"; this is an order to the officer who will carry it out.

Although but one form of the Imperative is usually given in books, it is necessary to be aware that other forms are used, and that theoretically there may be a form corresponding to each of the series of tenses explained in Section 36 of this Chapter, *e.g.* 'Do', 'Be doing,' 'Have done,' 'Be about to do'. Few inflected languages employ more than one form of the Imperative, but Greek has three.

We may notice that the time of all Moods is present, since they are expressions of the judgment of the speaker at the time he speaks ; the above illustrates this. The Imperative is a command uttered at a particular moment and the fulfilment must take place subsequently, *i.e.*, in future time ; the variations for Phase of action express the relation of the commanded activity to that future time. Section 36 should be read in this connection. Notice particularly that Phase of action has nothing to do with Mood, but indicates an adverbial qualification of the predicate notion.

20. The Precative Mood.

This is the Mood of entreaty, expressing a wish dependent for its fulfilment upon the will of another, who, as in the case

of the Imperative, is always the person addressed. The form employed is usually the Imperative and the forms for the first and third persons given above are primarily Precative. The remarks on Phase of action given in the preceding paragraph are applicable here also.

21. The Benedictive.

This is the Mood which expresses a wish simply, and is used in all persons. It is formed in English by the use of the auxiliary 'may' or 'might' placed before the subject Noun or Pronoun, as "May he be happy," "Oh! that God might reward him." Sanskrit has a special form for this Mood and the Greek Optative was primarily of this signification, but it is often found employed in ways which assimilate it to the other Moods, being frequently used with Indicative or Subjunctive force.

22. The Determinative Mood.

By this term we wish to indicate those forms with 'will' when it expresses the consent or decision of the subject to perform the activity specified. See the section on the Auxiliaries.

23. The Compulsive Mood.

By this again we intend to denote those uses of 'shall' when it takes the place of 'will' and indicates that the activity is *compelled* or *insisted upon*. As both decision and compulsion precede the activity mentioned, it is easily seen why these words, when used modally, still retain their force as marks of future time.

24. The Permissive Mood.

This is formed in English by the help of 'may' and 'might', used in a Permissive sense, as "He knows he may go"; "They were told that they might not leave the town". We place this with the will Moods, because the activity is exhibited as dependent upon the consent of another than the agent.

THE THOUGHT MOODS.

25. The Subjunctive.

This is the primary thought Mood, employed when the sentence states something conceived as an idea and not as a fact. In Greek and Latin it is used to indicate several of the varieties given below, but in English it is confined almost entirely to its strict meaning, and in some of its uses, even in that meaning, it tends to disappear. In the Indian languages its use is almost entirely confined to conditional sentences. The name of the Mood is not satisfactory because it suggests dependence rather than the meaning given, but since it is most commonly found in dependent clauses and the name is familiar, we retain it. Its use in dependent clauses is the outcome of its true character.

The Subjunctive is very commonly found as one of the inflected forms of the Verb; in Greek especially, it is parallel with the Indicative; but few languages equal the Greek in this respect. Sanskrit has but one form which is used in a particular kind of conditional sentence. The Semitic languages display small consciousness of the need of any such form. Greek uses the Subjunctive with great effect in Indirect sentences, employing it when the reported speech is stated with no endorsement on the speaker's part, but using the Indicative when the speaker wishes to indicate that the reported speech represents his own opinion also. It is found used as a future in older Greek, probably because what is future is also problematical, existing only in idea, and therefore to be looked at either way.

The Subjunctive in English is on its way to disappear, a fact to be regretted, since, although, in speech, its force can be conveyed by the tone of the voice, in writing this expedient cannot be employed and the distinction of Mood, a distinction sometimes of importance, is lost. The only inflected tense of the notional Verb which exhibits a special form for this Mood is the present Aorist, wherein the third person singular drops

the 's' of the Indicative. In the copula forms, 'be' is used for 'is' or 'are' throughout, 'should' and 'would' are used for 'shall' and 'will', 'were' for 'was' and 'have' for 'has'. The use of 'were' for 'was' appears to be anomalous because it is used almost entirely in the Protases of sentences whose Apodoses are in present or future time, *e.g.*, "If he were certain of his ground he would act differently". It is probably best to look upon 'were' in such sentences as a past form, used as the past Aorist is often used, *e.g.*, "If he came to-day he would be in time". The past form is justified because the activity expressed by the Protasis precedes that expressed in the Apodosis and is therefore past in time with reference to it.

The following sentences illustrate the use of the Subjunctive ; a perusal will help the student to understand its true character.

(*a*) Noun Clauses ;

"*It is better that he* die *than that justice* depart *out of the world*".

"*'Tis time I* were *gone*".

"*Take heed he* hear *us not*".

"*She'll not tell me if she* love *me*".

(*b*) Adjective clauses ;

"*The man, whoe'er he* be, *must learn the truth*".

Adjective clauses being definitive do not readily employ the Subjunctive.

(*c*) Adverb Clauses ;

Local, Causal, Consecutive and Comparative clauses seldom use the Subjunctive. For conditional sentences see next section.

(i) Temporal Clauses ;

"*Ere thou* go *give up thy staff*".

"*This night before the cock* crow, *thou shalt deny me thrice*".

(ii) Concessive Clauses ;

"*Although in glorious titles he* excel".

"*Whether it* win *or* lose *the game*".

(iii) Final Clauses ;

"*Forget to pity him lest thy pity* prove *a serpent*".

"*And govern well thine appetite lest sin* surprise *thee*".

"*He goes in order that he* may avoid *us.*"

The final clause is Subjunctive.

The following display the Subjunctive used Optatively ;

"*The wills above* be *done*".

"*Some heavenly power* guide *us out of this fearful country*".

The student will hardly fail to notice that these sentences have an archaic ring about them, and this will show him how little modern English uses the Subjunctive in this way.

26. The Conditional Mood.

The term Conditional is sometimes used to denote certain modal forms used in Conditional sentences. These forms are really Subjunctive and should be so named, but in some languages Subjunctive forms are used in no other way, and the name Conditional is usually applied to them. The various forms of Conditional sentences require elucidation.

A Conditional sentence is a complex sentence wherein the truth of the principal clause is dependent upon a condition expressed by the dependent clause. The principal clause is conveniently called the Apodosis and the clause stating the condition the Protasis.

In a conditional sentence the fact of conditional dependence is indicated by the introductory Conjunction or is understood from the nature of the notions expressed. The use of the Subjunctive is determined by the character of the Protasis, which can be regarded in three ways, according to the logical quality of the sentence.

(*a*) The Protasis may express a condition known to be unfulfilled and the Apodosis dependent upon it is then necessarily unfulfilled ; both express ideas which

are not actually realised and they are therefore appropriately expressed by the Subjunctive Mood; Examples are :—

Present time; "*If he* were *now singing we* should *hear him*".

Past time; "*If he* had *won the prize they* would have been *greatly pleased*".

Future time; "*If he* were *to fall he* would *break his limbs*".

This kind of Subjunctive sentence is still in common use and the special form cannot be dispensed with.

(*b*) The Protasis may be treated as doubtful and the Apodosis states what the consequence will be, supposing the doubt is resolved in the way suggested by the clause, *i.e.*, the Protasis expresses an idea and the Apodosis a fact; the former therefore is put in the Subjunctive and the latter in some other appropriate Mood. Examples are :—

Present time; "*If he* be *here his sister must be here too*".

Past time; "*If he* completed *his task further orders were given to him*".

Future time; "*If he* should *question you give him no answer*".

(*c*) The Protasis may be accepted as matter of fact and the Apodosis will express its actual consequence; the Protasis will be in the Indicative and the Apodosis in some Mood other than the Subjunctive. Examples are :—

Present time; "*If he is hungry give him something to eat*".

Past time; "*If he started yesterday, he will be here to-day*".

Future time; "*If he calls to-morrow he will do so before noon*".

27. The Dubitative Mood.

This is the Mood expressing pure possibility and doubt, and is expressed in English by the auxiliaries 'may' and 'might', as "He may be singing at the concert to-night", "They *might* have heard of it". The speaker does not know whether the suggested activity took place or not. The degree of doubt in the speakers mind may vary indefinitely, and reinforcement of definition is accomplished by the use of modal Adverbs or by the tone of the voice.

28. The Potential Mood.

There is a special form of the Verb in Sanskrit which is called by this name but it is not used very strictly, being sometimes Dubitative as above, and sometimes Obligative in the sense given below. The name should be restricted to expressions of a possibility dependent upon a capacity in the agent to perform the activity specified, equivalent to the force of the English 'can' and 'could', as "He *can* play golf well", "He *could* do that if he tried". It is sometimes found as a special conjugation.

29. The Obligative Mood.

We give this name to the Mood which expresses the speaker's opinion that the predicate notion should or should not be true of the subject notion on grounds of propriety of some kind. English employs the auxiliary 'should' to express this, as "He *should* go at once". In Greek, Latin and Sanskrit the modal force is transferred to the predicate and Participles meaning 'fit to be' are employed; (Greek, Adjectives in *teos*; Latin, the Gerundive). Compare the English "He has to go", "He is to be promoted".

30. The Necessitative Mood.

This is expressed in English by the auxiliary 'must' and denotes a circumstantial necessity of any kind, a necessity rendering the activity inevitable, as "He *must* be in town by to-morrow evening."

31. The Apodictive Mood.

This too is in English expressed by the auxiliary 'must', but it is to be distinguished from the last named, for it indicates the conviction of the speaker that a certain event must have taken place or must take place, but he is not able to assert it as positive fact; it is the Necessitative with a tinge of doubt. Examples are:—"He *must* have gone by this time"; "If we had been present we *must* surely have seen him".

32. Mood in Participles.

When Participles are used attributively or appositively they are, as Adjectives, normally the result of Indicative judgments and used indicatively. When the judgment is in another Mood, it must be expressed by means of a Relative clause. For example "He must go" becomes "He who must go", etc. When the modal idea becomes the main predicate notion, the Participle resulting can then be used in the ordinary way; *e.g.* "He may go", becomes "He who may go", but "He is permitted to go" can be "He, being permitted to go", the alternative sentence with the Verb of incomplete predication being in the Indicative Mood, as explained in the section on varieties of Mood, and in that on Verbs of Incomplete Predication.

33. Verbs of Incomplete Predication.

We treat of these here because the Modal Auxiliaries were originally Verbs of this kind, and their use as modal auxiliaries arises from the primitive use. By the term is meant Verbs whose meaning is such that an object Noun signifying activity is necessary to complete the notion. The name is not quite suitable because it is not the act of predication which is defective, but the predicate notion itself, this notion being so general as to require further definition. Such verbs are *to begin, to try, to wish, to be able, to cause, to continue, to repeat, to be accustomed, to be compelled, to be permitted*, etc. The student will see for himself that some of these are nearly equivalent to the modal auxiliaries, but a distinc-

tion must be made between them, for such Verbs are themselves subject to modal modification, as for example "He is permitted to go," "He must be—shall be—should be—can be—permitted to go".

It is these Verbs which give rise to the formation of various Conjugations, the significance of the Verb of Incomplete Predication being blended with the root by means of a modification of such root, which really expresses the object of the activity. Such are the Causal and Desiderative Conjugations in Sanskrit, the Causal and Potential in Marathi; Verbs in *io* and *oo* in Greek; Inceptive, Frequentative and Desiderative Verbs in Latin, and some of the Conjugational forms of the Semitic Verb. Others again receive expression through tense forms, *e.g.*, Greek uses the Past Imperfect to express beginning of action; Marathi has a special Habitual Past Tense, etc.

English presents these Conjugations in their true nature, for it separates the true Verb from its object, and inflects this Verb throughout in the usual way, *e.g.*, in "I caused him to disappear", a sentence which would be expressed by a conjugational form of the Verb 'to disappear' in some languages, the real activity of the subject of the sentence is not a 'disappearing', but the 'causing' of such disappearing on the part of another. Conjugational forms have therefore disappeared from English; the unconscious process of analysis which has brought the language to its present condition has dissolved them into their elements and given them a clearer and more logical expression.

TENSE.

34. The two elements in Tense.

The resolution of the inflected forms of the Verb into their elements has resulted in the separation of the Copula, with the Mood and Time elements, from the Predicate which is modified for Voice and Phase of Action. That the time mark has been left with the Copula is logically a mistake, since it

obviously expresses a modification of the predicate, but it leads to results which are valuable. Every sentence is the expression of the speaker's judgment at the time he speaks, that is to say, the judgment itself is in present time, and its time requires no definite statement. The way is thus left open to mark the time of the predicate by the time forms of the Copula, and so to distinguish unmistakeably between time and phase of action. All tenses must be considered with reference to both these adverbial modifications, and an adequate nomenclature must specify both.

35. The Time Element.

Every activity takes place in time; it begins and ends. What is true at one time is not true at another time, and even if a quality is permanently found in a thing, that thing is itself perishable; it may have ceased to exist or does not yet exist; the time mark is therefore necessary in every sentence. Such time mark must exhibit a quality or activity in present, past or future time, and this, in a general way, is sufficient, although stricter definition of time may be denoted by Adverbs. There can be but one time present to the speaker, and although we may think of a past beyond a past, of a future subsequent to a future, yet such past or future will be simply past or future to the time to which it is related.

The time reference may be of two kinds; either to the time present to the speaker, as is the case with all principal clauses; or to the time defined by the principal clause, as is the case with many dependent clauses. (See Chapter on Sequence of Tenses.)

36. Phase of Action; Predicative Participles.

In the sentences 'I am writing', 'I have written', 'I was about to write', the forms 'writing', 'written', 'about to write', denote modifications of the activity and signify imperfect, perfect or intended action respectively, and these modifications are adverbially qualificatory of the general adjectival notion. Any action considered from the stand-

point of a definite point of time must be completed, in progress, or in prospect, with reference to that point of time; the forms therefore fulfil all requirements.

N. B.—We treat the periphrastic form 'about to write' as a Participle because it undoubtedly does the work of a Participle found in many languages, and is necessary to complete the series, and because such procedure leads to a clear explanation.

The forms mentioned are usually called Participles, on the ground that they partake of the nature of the Verb and of the Adjective. It is better to look upon them as Adjectives of action simply, since they retain nothing of what justifies the Verb being made a separate Part of Speech, that is to say, the Copula element is absent in them. The ordinary nomenclature may be retained if this is properly understood.

The three Participles mentioned are frequently called the Present, Past and Future, but this procedure leads to misunderstanding of their true character. Their time reference is determined by considerations other than such as can be drawn from the forms themselves. For example in 'I am writing', 'I was writing', 'I shall be writing', the times of the activity are present, past and future respectively, but the Participle remains unchanged and means action in progress at the time defined by the Verb in each case. If we say that in 'I was writing' the Participle is present, then we have two times in one simple sentence and this is impossible since the sentence would then be the expression of two judgments. In the same way the Prospective Participle can be used with a Verb in present, past or future time as "I was about to go", *i.e.*, at a certain point of time in the past the intention of going was present to my mind.

In the inflected classical languages these modifications for phase of action are not clearly to be distinguished from the time mark, hence it is that the element of phase of action has not usually received sufficient consideration.

37. The ordinary Copulas.

These are the forms of the Verbs 'to be', 'to become' and, in the Western languages, 'to have'. We write the forms 'to be' and 'to have' with a dash to indicate that, as Copulas, they require some predicate word after them. As usually printed, with nothing to mark their copulative functioning, they are forms of notional Verbs signifying existence, becoming, and possession respectively, and include the predicate. The copulative use sprang out of their original significance as notional Verbs, but in their use as Copulas this latter significance is lost. The Verb 'to become' is always a Copula.

Present :— I am—, I have—, I have been—.

Past :— I was—, I had—, I had been—.

Future :— I shall—, I shall be—, I shall have been—.

The student can supply the remaining forms of Person and Number for himself.

38. The Copula 'to be'.

The Tenses of the Verb 'to be' call for little comment but this, that in English, owing to the absence of an inflected future Tense in the older language, 'shall' and 'will' have come to be employed to denote future time. For the right use of these see Section 32 on the Modal Auxiliaries.

39. The Copula 'to have'.

The use of 'have' as a copula is not easy to explain. It is employed in tenses which indicate that a completed act has given rise to a corresponding condition and it is upon this condition that the emphasis falls. The difficulty is to understand how it came about that the Perfect Participle of Verbs, which in other positions is distinctly passive, should have come to bear an active meaning when used with 'have', for in a sentence like "I have written a letter", the Participle is undoubtedly conceived as active. The clue is probably to be found in sentences of the form "I have a letter written", which means "I wrote and now possess a written letter". It is therefore best to look upon the Participle in perfect tenses as a peculiar idiom wherein usage has obscured the passive mean-

ing. Some languages have an active Perfect Participle for Transitive Verbs. In Intransitive Verbs the Participle is active.

It may be noticed that the Indian languages do not employ 'have' as a copula, and hence arises a difficulty for European students. The Perfect Participle of Transitive Verbs in these languages is always clearly passive and is used with the ordinary copula and not with 'have'. In their attempts to translate the English perfect and pluperfect tenses, Englishmen try to do it by using the ordinary copula, and fail to see that this does not give the meaning required.

40. The Analytical Tenses.

The term usually employed to denote the tenses made up of a Copula and a Participle is 'Compound Tenses'. If our analysis is correct this term is hardly suitable, for the Participle is an Adjective and the tense form is confined to the Copula; such tenses are really sentences with Adjective predicates. We use the term 'analytical' as more truly denoting their true nature, and as a concession to those who think it desirable to include the whole form of Copula and Participle in the conception of the tense. This procedure is to a certain extent justified by the fact that the time of the activity is indicated by the Copula and not by the Participle.

By combining the three Predicative Participles with the simple copulas we arrive at the following forms :—

Time.	Phase of Action.		
	Imperfect.	Perfect.	Prospective.
Present.	*I am doing.*	*I have done.*	*I am about to do.*
Past.	*I was doing.*	*I had done.*	*I was about to do.*
Future.	*I shall be doing.*	*I shall have done.*	*I shall be about to do.*

To these maybe added six more which are found in English and other Western languages but not in the analytical languages of the East, *viz.*, the six tenses formed by the compound form of the Copula with the Imperfect and Prospective Participles as follows :—

PERF. IMPERFECT—	Present,	*I have been doing.*
	Past,	*I had been doing.*
	Future,	*I shall have been doing.*
PERF. PROSPECTIVE-	Present,	*I have been about to do.*
	Past,	*I had been about to do.*
	Future,	*I shall have been about to do.*

The forms given as Perfect Prospective are not usually noticed in English Grammars, but are undoubtedly as much true tense forms as those of the Perfect Imperfect. The compound copula with the Perfect Participle is a passive form.

To the above fifteen analytical tenses must be added three others, those of the Aoristic or Indefinite series, Present, '*I do*', Past, '*I did*', and Future '*I shall do*'. These forms alone are inflected in English, and even in these the inflections for concord have almost disappeared. The series is rightly called Aoristic or Indefinite because the forms present no mark of phase of action, *i.e.*, they express the notion of activity in its most general and unmodified way.

Even in this series of Tenses, English is on the way to the substitution of an analytical for an inflected form. In a sentence like 'I do write', the 'do' is emphatic, but it is really a copula; this is still more apparent in Interrogative sentences as "Does he write?" The 'write' in both cases should probably be looked upon as an Aorist Participle.

We present the above Tenses in one comprehensive table :—

Phase of Action.	*Time.*	
AORIST,	Present,	*I write, you write,* etc., etc.
	Past,	*I wrote,*
	Future,	*I shall write.*

Phase of Action.	*Time.*	
IMPERFECT,	Present,	*I am writing.*
	Past,	*I was writing,*
	Future,	*I shall be writing.*
PERFECT,	Present,	*I have written.*
	Past,	*I had written.*
	Future,	*I shall have written.*
PROSPECTIVE,	Present,	*I am about to write.*
	Past,	*I was about to write.*
	Future,	*I shall be about to write.*
PERFECT IMPERF.	Present,	*I have been writing.*
	Past,	*I had been writing.*
	Future,	*I shall have been writing.*
PERFECT PROSP.	Present,	*I have been about to write.*
	Past,	*I had been about to write.*
	Future,	*I shall have been about to write.*

41. Application to other languages.

As this is not a comparative grammar, a detailed explanation of how these various Tenses find expression in other languages is not given. The tenses specified seem to cover all possible forms of Tense based on time and phase of action. The Tenses of other languages will be found to convey one or other of these meanings, but no inflective language has nearly so many Tenses, and the meaning of more than one of those given may be conveyed by one form. Latin has but six Indicative tenses ; Greek has eight, but two of these are of identical meaning in most cases ; Sanskrit has six Indicative Tenses, and some of these are used somewhat irregularly. In all three languages the Present Tense is both Aoristic and Imperfect, and one form in Latin does the work of a Past Aorist and a Present Perfect. Other similar phenomena present themselves, and the student must consult special grammars, marking the functions of each of the forms found and their relation to the list of Tenses given above.

In some languages are found :—

AUGMENTS, *i.e.*, vowels prefixed to certain tense forms to indicate past time.

REDUPLICATIONS, *i.e.*, doublings of initial syllables to indicate perfect tenses.

The use of analytical tenses makes it possible to put emphasis on either element at will, and this will guide the student to an understanding of certain uses he may find.

The Semitic languages have but two Tenses and these are distinguished, not by their time significance, but by their significance as expressing phase of action. Their use presents little difficulty to those who properly realise what phase of action means. Mood finds but scanty expression in these languages.

42. Gender, Number and Person in Verbs.

The pronominal terminations of inflected forms of the Verbs present no problem beyond that occasioned by requirements of concord. They but serve to mark the copula, and one form would be sufficient for all practical purposes ; nothing is gained by elaborate repetition of information already given in the Nominative. The pronominal element in the Aryan languages is somewhat indistinct owing to lapse of time and long use ; the Dravidian languages preserve it in a much fuller form.

It may interest the reader to remark that modern attempts to frame artificial languages for general use are for the most part attempts to eliminate the unnecessary inflections we have indicated. He will see how much labour would be saved, if inflection for concord could be dispensed with. It is probable that the extended use of English in modern times is to a large extent due to its having discarded so many superfluous inflections.

43. Passive Tenses.

Passive Tenses corresponding to the six series given above might be formed, but those of the Perfect Imperfect and the

Perfect Prospective series are but seldom found. The following are the common forms :—

AORISTIC,	Present,	*I am loved.*
	Past,	*I was loved.*
	Future,	*I shall be loved.*
IMPERFECT,	Present,	*I am being loved.*
	Past,	*I was being loved.*
	Future,	*I shall be being loved.*
PERFECT,	Present,	*I have been loved.*
	Past,	*I had been loved.*
	Future,	*I shall have been loved.*
PROSPECTIVE,	Present,	*I am about to be loved.*
	Past,	*I was about to be loved.*
	Future,	*I shall be about to be loved.*

The concluding Participles in these forms are Passive, what is needed for phase of action being supplied by the copula.

Where the Passive is a conjugational form as in Sanskrit, the Passive Verb is in all respects parallel with the active; the same is mainly true of those languages which form their passive by means of distinct terminations, and naturally in those languages where the passive is formed by the use of a distinct Verb meaning 'to suffer' with an Infinitive of the activity suffered.

44. Mood in Analytic Tenses.

The modal forms of the Analytic Tenses present no difficulty; the Modal Auxiliaries are annexed to the copula. Examples in the Dubitative Mood are :—

Aoristic,	*He may do,*
Imperfect,	*He may be doing,*
Perfect,	*He may have done,*
Prospective,	*He may be about to do.*
Perf. Imperf.	*He may have been doing.*
Perf. Pros.	*He may have been about to do.*

For Apodictive and Necessitative change 'may' to 'must';
For Obligative change 'may' to 'should';

For Potential change 'may' to 'can';
For Benedictive put 'may' before the Nominative. The time mark is included in the auxiliary, but the auxiliaries are defective in time forms as has been shown above.

45. Copulas with Noun and Adjective Predicates.

Many of the Moods and Tenses can be employed with Noun predicates or with predicates denoted by Adjectives of quality, for these have but to be substituted for the Participle; the relation expressed is not thereby altered, although the significance is changed. At the same time the significance of such predicates imposes restrictions. Sentences of such kind cannot be put in the Passive Voice which arises from the notion of activity, nor is there anything in Nouns and Adjectives to correspond to phase of action. The Perfect Tenses again arise out of the significance of activity, and there can be no perfect tenses with Adjective or Noun predicates; we cannot, for instance, say, "It has white", although we can say, "It is white", or "It has been white", "It should be white". This does not mean that the predicates are not true predicates; the disabilities arise out of the signification of the terms, not out of their functioning. Examples are :—

Adjective Predicates.	Noun Predicates.
He was good.	*He was a clerk.*
He has been great.	*He has been a soldier.*
He may be lazy.	*He may be a lawyer.*
He must be rich.	*He must be a clever man.*
He should be careful.	*He should be a sailor.*

N. B.—We use the word Adjective here to distinguish words expressing quality from Participles expressing activity, but both are really Adjectives.

46. Other Copulas.

Besides the Copulas used to make up the usual analytic tenses, many other Verbs can be used as such, *e.g.*, *become*, *appear*, *look*, *seem*, *stand*, *go*, etc. This use is clearly indicated by the fact that they are followed by words expressing the

notion predicated of the subject, *i.e.*, by Adjectives, Participles and Nouns and not by Adverbs. Compare "It looks clean" and "It rings clearly". In the first instance 'clean' qualifies 'it'; in the second case 'clearly' qualifies 'rings'. Words which are commonly used as Adverbs are sometimes found with copula Verbs, but even these must then be parsed as Adjectives, *e.g.*, in "He looks well", 'well' does not qualify 'looks' but 'he', although the word 'well' does not happen to be used attributively. Some of these copulas involve a modal element in their signification.

47. General remarks on the Tenses.

THE AORIST TENSES.

Aorist tenses express action in general without modification for phase of action, and as a consequence of this signification and their comparative antiquity, they are the most commonly used to express the more general meanings or those wherein the time element is indistinct. The present Aorist is very commonly employed to state a rule, a habit or a characteristic of a subject, with little reference to time, *e.g.* "He reads books", "He paints pictures", "Dogs bark", *i.e.* such activity is customary. This is the *Gnomic Present*. Inflected languages also often use the Present Aorist as a Present Imperfect.

The Present Aorist is freely employed in narration when it is desired to express in a vivid manner a succession of past events; this is the *Historic Present*, but the use is not confined to the Aorist, for all present tenses can be used in this way, *e.g.*, "The man falls into a well, swims about shouting all the time, has no hope of rescue, but is at last pulled out by the villagers".

The present Aorist is frequently used for the future in dependent clauses when the principal Verb is in future time, as "When he comes I will tell him". Many languages would use the future in the dependent

clause. The English use is perhaps a survival from the time when the Present did the work of the Future Tense.

The Past Aorist is freely used in English and in some other languages in the Protases of conditional sentences, when the Apodosis is in future time, as "If he did that I should regret it." The Protasis is past with reference to the Apodosis.

It is important to bear in mind that the term Aorist refers to phase of action and not to time. In some languages the distinction is not clear and it is often supposed that Aorist means 'past'. The name, which signifies 'without limitation', is quite appropriate to its actual character as signifying the Verb in its general sense unmodified for phase of action.

IMPERFECT TENSES.

These are especially the tenses of vivid and picturesque narration, since they invite the hearer to consider the activity as in progress before him. The present Imperfect, when a separate form is provided, is usually employed when emphasis on the time is desired. It is sometimes found doing duty for an immediate future, and both Present and Past Imperfect are sometimes used to express beginning of action. Marathi has an emphatic Present Imperfect in which the copula is combined with a Verb inflected in the usual way.

PERFECT TENSES.

The special characteristic of Perfect Tenses is that they express a condition arising from a completed act, and are present past or future with reference to that condition and not to the act which produced it; *e.g.* "I have brought my luggage with me", is in present time and means "I have my luggage with me", although the act of bringing is past. Many errors in sequence of Tenses arise from treating the Present Perfect as a past Tense.

In English a succession of events in past time is expressed by Past Aorists or Imperfects so long as one act is not conditioned in any way by the preceding; the sequence of the propositions being sufficient to mark mere sequence in time. When a past act is in some way dependent upon a preceding one, this preceding act is then expressed by the Past Perfect, as "He had gone to town and I could not see him", which means that my inability to see him was due to his absence, a condition arising from his having gone away, and not destroyed by a subsequent return. At the same time the action producing the condition is completed, and the idea of a past antecedent to a past is close to the surface, and this meaning may come to be emphasised.

Indian languages, which do not employ 'have' as a Copula but use the Verb 'to be', cannot give the peculiar character of the Perfect Tenses; the Tense which seems to come nearest to the English Pluperfect is really a Past Past Tense, *i.e.*, expressing an act preceding another past act, and does not indicate the conditioning significance of the English Pluperfect.

PROSPECTIVE TENSES.

These must be considered in their twofold aspect as implying both impending and intended action. Sometimes the one and sometimes the other aspect is uppermost in thought, and this depends upon whether the subject is something able to exercise volition or not. This idea of impending action is sometimes carried so far that the Prospective Participle comes to bear a Gnomic Sense, as in Marathi wherein the Attributive Participle means one who pursues, or may be always expected to pursue, a certain course denoted by the word of activity.

THE PERFECT IMPERFECT AND PERFECT PROSPECTIVE TENSES.

These Tenses are of modern origin and of very definite and closely defined meaning, further detailed notice of them is therefore unnecessary. They are found in but few languages, although some languages manage to convey the same meaning by round-about methods, *e.g.*, Marathi says " I came doing" for "I have been doing". The meaning of these Tenses may be defined as follows :—

The Perfect Imperfect Tenses express a condition arising from an activity conceived as having been in progress throughout a period of past time.

The Perfect Tenses express a condition arising from a purpose or intention held through a period of past time.

CHAPTER XII

ADJECTIVES AND NOUNS OF ACTION.

1. Attributive and Appositional Participles.

By Adjectives and Nouns of action we mean the forms regularly derived from roots significant of activity. We have already treated of Predicative Participles in our explanation of the Verb. In languages which form their Tenses by inflection there is little need for the employment of Participles in the predicate position ; the Adjective and the Copula are included in the one inflected form. In these languages therefore we may expect to find Participles mainly employed attributively and appositively, and in some cases the same form is used in all positions. Some Indian languages have special forms for attributive Participles, distinguishing them from the forms used predicatively.

Speaking generally, we may say that Participles are attributive when they precede the Noun and appositive when

they follow it ; but when, as in English, the adverbial qualification follows the Participle and would separate it too far from the Noun, if it were put before the Noun, the attributive Participle may follow the Noun. The Prospective Participle always follows the Noun.

Examples are :—

"The *winning* team played a good game".

"The *beaten* enemy withdrew".

"The boy *eating nuts* looks very happy".

"The sand *brought down by the river* has choked the channel".

"The train *about to start* is the Panjab mail".

As was explained in Section 36, the time of the activity expressed by the Participle is determined by the time of the Verb of the sentence, the Participles themselves expressing phase of action which relates them to such time. In all languages wherein concord can be exhibited, Participles agree with their Nouns in adjectival concord, *i.e.*, in Case, as well as in Gender and Number ; they are in fact, for all grammatical purposes, Adjectives, and the study of grammar would be greatly simplified if they were so treated.

Participles, significant of activity as they are, express accidental and temporary determinations of the subject. Such determinations may form the ground of the predicate and thus function adverbially as well as adjectivally. This peculiarity of functioning is especially prominent in the case of appositive Participles ; *e.g.*, "Exerting all his strength, the swimmer reached the bank" ; here the participial clause is qualificatory of the swimmer, *i.e.*, is adjectival, but it also furnishes the reason for his success, *i.e.*, does adverbial work. The sentence may be paraphrased in two ways and the emphasis be made to fall either on the adjectival or on the adverbial significance :—

"The swimmer, who exerted all his strength, reached the bank" ;

"The swimmer, by exerting all his strength, reached the bank."

The following alternative sentences may be compared in this connection :—

"The sick boy was sent home";

"The boy, who was very ill, was sent home";

"The boy, being very ill, was sent home";

"The boy was very ill and was sent home";

"The boy was sent home because he was very ill".

All adjectival qualifications can be expressed by Relative clauses ; these have been already discussed and will again receive attention in Part III on the joining of sentences.

2. Participial Clauses.

As was said above, many languages employ the same forms of the Participles in all positions ; this is not the case with Sanskrit and its derivative languages which have special indeclinable forms for Participles used appositively. This device is carried still farther in English, which has developed forms for each of the six series of tenses, by employing with them participial forms of the copula which express the act of judgment and indicate the phase of action, but drop the time mark and the concord which marks the principal Verb of the sentence. These forms are the following :—

Aorist	.. *Doing.*
Imperfect ..	.. *Doing.*
Perfect ..	.. *Having done.*
Prospective ..	.. *Being about to do.*
Perfect Imperfect	.. *Having been doing.*
Perf. Prospective	.. *Having been about to do.*

N. B.—The Aorist and the Imperfect have the same form ; this explains certain uses found.

Examples are :—

Aorist, "*Putting* his load on the ground he sat down to eat".

Imperfect, "*Holding* his hat in his hand he bowed to the ground".

Perfect, "*Having finished* his lessons he went off to play".

Perfect Imperfect, "*Having been writing* steadily for two hours he was very tired".

Perfect Prospective, "*Having been about to do* this for some time he was fully prepared".

When the Nominative of the principal clause is a Noun, the participial clause usually follows the Noun :—

"The student, having finished his lessons, went off to play."

We call these clauses because, although in many cases no subject is named in the clause itself, yet such subject is understood and is the same as that of the principal clause ; *e.g.*, the first example given above is equivalent to "He put his load on the ground and sat down to eat."

When the subject of the participial clause is other than that of the principal clause, it must be definitely stated and we then have what is generally known as an 'absolute clause', as "The sun having set, we prepared to camp for the night". The term 'absolute clause' has no particular meaning and is really misleading. Its only distinction from the ordinary participial clause is that it has its own peculiar subject. The term is usually explained by saying that it is a clause out of relation to the rest of the sentence, but this is obviously not true. The participial clause is adjectival of its own subject; but the whole clause has the adverbial force explained above, and usually states a cause, condition or reason for the activity expressed by the principal clause. In the example given above it is clear that the so-called absolute clause states the reason why the preparation of the camp was proceeded with. Latin and Greek clearly exhibit this adverbial functioning by putting the clause in the Ablative and Genitive Cases respectively, the Greek Genitive being used in its Ablative significance. The meaning of the Ablative is 'motion from', and the Ablative clause indicates that the activity of the principal clause springs from it. We may therefore define the absolute clause as a participial clause which in its relation to the principal clause functions adver-

bially only, while in relation to its own subject it is adjectival in the usual way.

The participial clause is not used to qualify the Accusative after Transitive Verbs; a relative clause is used, or the Noun which is the Accusative of the principal clause is made the subject of the absolute clause, and then an Accusative Pronoun, whose antecedent is the subject of the participial clause, is put in the principal clause; *e.g*:—

"I was forced to punish the boy *who was very lazy*".
or "The boy *being very lazy* I was forced to punish him";
not "I was forced to punish the boy *being very lazy*".

This latter form would mean that the speaker, not the boy, was very lazy, because the subject of the participial clause is the Nominative of the sentence when no other is mentioned. This kind of clause, is, in English, usually called the Nominative absolute, but, since it functions adverbially, it is probably better to look upon it as an Accusative; the two Cases are of the same form.

An apparent exception to the above is found in sentences wherein the main Verb is one signifying apprehension, perception, etc., as in "I saw the man sitting there". The word 'sitting', in this sentence seems to be both participial and gerundial in quality and is difficult to parse. The Participial is really Appositive and Imperfect, and the whole phrase is the equivalent of a Noun clause, *i.e.*, "I saw that the man was sitting there"; the object of perception was both the activity and the agent performing it. Care must be taken to distinguish such phrases from those wherein the Participle is attributive, as "I asked the man sitting there to tell me the time".

4. Gerunds or Nouns of Action.

We use the term Gerund to indicate the Abstract Noun formed from a word denoting activity, *i.e.*, the Noun in 'ing' which arises when the activity denoted by the appositive Participle becomes an object of thought and comment, such

that other predicates become applicable to it. The Gerund is then the equivalent of the Noun clause as the appositive Participle is the equivalent of the Adjective and Adverb clause, and in this way the equivalents of the three possible kinds of phrases are provided.

In accordance with this definition we have Gerunds corresponding to the six series of tenses and these may, or may not, have a determining word with them, but we give them with the Article for the sake of clearness. They are :—

Aorist ....*The doing* ;
Imperfect......*The doing* ;
Perfect........*The having done* ;
Prospective ....*The being about to do* ;
Perfect Impf. ..*The having been doing* ;
Perf. Prosp.....*The having been about to do.*

Corresponding Passive forms are :—

Aorist ....*The being loved* ;
Imperfect......*The being loved* ;
Perfect ......*The having been loved* ;
Prospective ....*The being about to be loved.*

Examples of their use are :—

"The *painting* of pictures is a difficult art".

"His *persisting* in his opposition creates great trouble".

"I remember his *having made* some such remark".

"Your *being about to call* on me suggested a way out of the difficulty".

"Your *having been type-writing* for a year is no guarantee of proficiency".

"Your *having been about to start* for home shows you had stopped work".

The Gerunds may be used with Prepositions in the usual way, and may in some languages be inflected for Case, etc., but the forms are not often found developed to the extent they have been in English.

"*By receiving* stolen goods one becomes accessory to theft".

"I gave him three rupees *for bringing* my parcels".

"He will write *before ordering* the goods".

The Infinitive in English cannot be used in any other Case than the Nominative, the Accusative and the Dative, or with any Preposition except 'to' and the Gerund takes its place when the need has to be supplied, *e.g.*, "He went home *to dine*", *i.e.*, 'for dining'; but "He walked out *after completing* his work".

For Gerundial clauses full Noun clauses may be substituted;

"His writing the letter was a great mistake";

"It was a great mistake that he wrote the letter".

Like all other words expressing activity, the Gerund carries with it its Accusative and its adverbial qualifications, and the whole clause so formed taken together, and not the gerundial form in its isolation, must be looked upon as the complete nominal notion; the Gerund arises from a predicate with its subject understood, not from a word.

The time reference of the Gerund is determined by the Verbs of the sentence, the forms themselves being significant of phase of action only; this has to be borne in mind when, for the phrases, Noun clauses or independent sentences are substituted.

The agent of the activity expressed by the Gerund is usually in the Genitive Case, *i.e.*, the Subjective Genitive, and its object in the Objective Genitive or the Accusative. Qualifications of the notion of activity are effected by Adverbs and not by Adjectives, as might at first have been expected; the reason of this is that there is always present to the mind the conception of some agent or subject as in the case of the participial clause; the gerund is related to this subject as a predicate and the Adverb is the predicate modifier. These remarks are also applicable to Infinitives.

5. The Noun of the Product of the Activity.

The English Gerund in 'ing' must be distinguished from another Noun of the same form but of different origin. The

Gerund expresses the abstract notion of the activity, the Noun in 'ing' we now consider expresses the *product* of the activity. The former is qualified by Adverbs, the latter by Adjectives. *E.g.*, in the sentences "His writing is bad", "His beautiful singing was much admired", 'writing' and singing' are Nouns of the kind under notice, and the Genitive of the Agent suggests ownership as well as agency. It is the actual written matter that is bad, the song as a performance which is beautiful. With a Noun of the activity the Genitive is more immediately and directly a Genitive of the Agent. The object of such Nouns is an objective Genitive or an Accusative.

Perhaps the best way to exhibit the difference in signification is to refer to the Greek and Latin languages, which have distinct forms for the Noun of the agent, the Noun of the activity, and the Noun of the product, as follows :—

Greek POIETES, a maker; POIESIS, a making; POIEMA, a thing made;

Latin, SCRIPTOR, a writer; SCRIPTIO, a writing; SCRIPTUM, something written.

The Gerund corresponds to the second form; the Noun of the product to the third. The first is the equivalent of that which we are now about to consider.

6. The Noun of the Agent.

This is the form in English with the termination 'er', as 'talker', 'painter'. The object of the activity is usually in the objective Genitive, but may be in the Accusative in some languages. Such Nouns are qualified by Adjectives and may be treated as simple Nouns in all respects.

The Dravidian languages distinguish phase of action in these Nouns, which are formed by adding Pronominal terminations to the ordinary Participles and signify, 'the one who is doing,' 'the one who does,' etc., as the case may be. Greek accomplishes the same thing by using the Article with the

Participle without the Noun, as *poion*, doing; *ho poion*, 'he who does'; English can accomplish this only by using Relative clauses as shown.

7. The Infinitives.

Corresponding to the Gerunds are the so-called Infinitives. As we have already shown, the name has no particular significance of any value; we retain it because it is commonly understood. Like the Gerunds, the Infinitives are abstract Nouns of action and form alternatives for the ordinary Noun clause. It is hardly possible to discriminate between them, except that perhaps the Gerund more clearly suggests the agent of the denoted activity. In Latin and Greek the Infinitives do the work of both, while in Sanskrit and its Derivative languages the term is restricted to the form used as an Accusative after certain Verbs.

The Infinitives exhibit forms for phase of action as follows:—

The Aorist.......... *To do*;
The Imperfect...... *To be doing*;
The Perfect......... *To have done*;
The Prospective.... *To be about to do*;
The Perf. Imp....... *To have been doing*;
The Perf. Pros. .... *To have been about to do.*

Corresponding Passive forms are:—

The Aorist.......... *To be loved*;
The Imperfect...... *To be being loved*;
The Perfect....... . *To have been loved*;
The Prospective.... *To be about to be loved.*

The Imperfect form is practically never used, and the other two possible forms are negligible.

Examples of the use of the Infinitives are:—

"*To labour* is *to pray*".
"*To be doing* one's duty is the first consideration".
"*To have finished* a long task is a source of great satisfaction".

"*To be about* to run away is a confession of guilt".
"*To have been working* all day is a reason for a desire for rest".

It must be understood that Infinitives, like all other words denoting activity, carry with them their Accusatives and adverbial qualifications, and the whole clause must be taken as the expression of the nominal notion which may take the form of a Noun clause.

"I told him *to bring the parcels*".
"I told him *that he was to bring the parcels*".
"*To bring parcels* is his present task".
"*Bringing parcels* is his present task".

8. Uses of the Infinitives.

The uses of the Infinitives in English are so many and varied that it is necessary to give a detailed account of them ; a knowledge of the English uses will enable the student to understand what he will meet with in other languages. Many of our remarks apply to all forms of the Infinitive, but since the use of these forms is mainly to specify the activity in the most general way, the Aorist form is by far the most frequently employed, and other forms will be understood from this. The clue to all uses is the fact that it is a Noun and can be paraphrased by a Gerund or Noun clause. It is found as a substitute for a Noun in all positions except in prepositional phrases ; when any Preposition other than 'to' is employed the place of the Infinitive is, in English, taken by the Gerund. The student must not be misled by the significance of the Infinitive as a word of activity which sometimes seems to give it a participial character.

English employs two forms of the Aorist Infinitive, one with, and one without, the particle 'to'. Other Infinitives always take this particle. The Verbs which commonly take the Infinitive without 'to' are *dare, need, ought, bid, make,* and a class of Verbs denoting sensuous or mental perception, such as *see, behold, mark, espy, watch, hear, find, know, etc.* The

latter take an Accusative as well as an Infinitive, and nearly all of them also take the form with 'to'.

Examples of Infinitives without 'to' are :—

"Do you not hear me *speak* ?"

"What need we *fear* ?"

"He dare not *say*".

We may also notice the Infinitives without 'to' in connection with the Conjunctions *as, rather than, sooner, but,* etc.

"I cannot choose but *like* your readiness".

The Infinitive without 'to' is also used instead of a finite tense form, when the emotion of the speaker leads him to choose the most general expression of the activity. (Sec VI, a.).

"What, not *know* the friend that served you !"

"A monarch *pledge* his word and not *stick* to it !"

I. The Infinitive as Subject.

(*a*) The examples given in the first section exhibit the Infinitive as subject of the sentence.

(*b*) The Infinitive may stand as the logical subject of the sentence wherein 'it' is the grammatical Nominative.

"Will it please your Highness *sit* ?"

"Me lists not *tell* what words were made".

(*c*) The same explanation applies to the Infinitive when used after the Adjectives *good, better, best,* as in :—

"Tis best *put* finger in the eye".

"Best *stand* upon our guard".

(*d*) Personal sentences of similar form are found, but it is difficult to see how the form can be logically justified ; it may have arisen from analogy ;

"Thou wert better *gall* the devil".

"I were best *leave* him" ;

(*i.e.* "It were best that I should leave him".)

II. The Infinitive as Predicate.

This naturally follows the copula verb :—

"To labour is *to pray*".

"With thee to go is *to stay* here".

"I seem *to understand* him".

These Infinitive predicates cannot be used attributively,.

We may here include the case where the Infinitive is used with the Copula in the sense of a Prospective or Obligative Participle.

"What is *to be done?*"

"It was not *to be borne*".

"Are there no follies for his pen *to purge* ?"

This Infinitive can be used attributively ;

"The follies *to be purged* were many".

"Baskets *to bring* the fruit were provided".

These latter usages might equally well have been included under section IV. C.

III. The Infinitive as Object.

(*a*) The Infinitive as an Accusative after Verbs is found with *dare, need, ought,* etc., and with Verbs of Incomplete Predication ;

"We need not *go*".

"He began *to complain*".

"She continued *to work* ".

"He dares *to sleep* ".

(*b*) With Verbs expressing a determination of the will, as *seek, wish, resolve, threaten,* etc. ;

"He sought *to slay* the child".

"I propose *to write* on the subject".

It should be noticed that Infinitives of Transitive Verbs may have object Accusatives after them. These must be distinguished from the forms mentioned in the next paragraph.

(*c*) Most common are sentences wherein the Predicate word takes an Accusative of the person or thing, which Accusative is followed by an Infinitive expressing an activity of which the person or thing named by the Accusative is the agent. This is the construction known as the Accusative and Infinitive and must be distinguished from that wherein the Accusative names the object of the activity denoted by the Infinitive. Verbs which take an Infinitive as object (IV, a. and b. above) exhibit such Infinitive as denoting an activity of the subject of the sentence. Two kinds of sentences under this head must be distinguished;

(I) Sentences wherein the predicate states a feeling or opinion; the Accusative then goes more closely with the Infinitive to form one notional whole, the equivalent of a Noun Clause.

"I judged *him to be a foreigner*".

"He frankly avowed *himself to be* Wilfred". (*i.e.* " avowed that he was Wilfred".)

(II) Sentences wherein the Accusative is more directly the object of the predicate while still naming the agent of the activity denoted by the Infinitive.

"Your feelings lead you *to say* something in my defence".

N. B.—A sentence with a Verb of promising takes this form but in such sentences the *Nominative* and *not* the Accusative is the agent of the activity denoted by the Infinitive.

"I promised him to call".

i.e.. 'that I would call'.

(*d*) Verbs such as *let*, *make*, *cause*, etc., take an Accusative which goes with the Infinitive to form a notional whole.

"The Lord God had not caused *it to rain*".

"I made *him bring* his books with him".

"They let *him do* as he wished".

(*e*) The Accusative sometimes seems to serve a double purpose; it denotes at once the object of the predicate Verb and of the Infinitive, but the Infinitive may be looked upon as adjectival of the object Noun;

"I have *nothing to do*".

"They begged me to give them *something to eat*".

"He left me *nought to conquer*".

(*f*) When the Accusative of the Active sentence is made the Nominative of the Passive sentence, the Passive Verb is still followed by an Infinitive denoting an activity of which this Nominative is the agent; *e.g.*,

"They heard him call" becomes :—

"He was heard by them to call".

Other examples are :—

"That speechless page was seen *to glide*".

"We may be said *to have thought* of little else".

IV. The Infinitive as the equivalent of the Prepositional phrase.

By this we mean those uses of the Infinitive which exhibit it as functioning in an adjectival or adverbial manner. The particle 'to', which in the ordinary Infinitive has no significance beyond that of denoting the Infinitive form, then becomes a real Preposition, the equivalent of the Dative Case.

(a) **With Verbs used adverbially :—**

(i) Verbs of movement, as *go*, *come*, *hasten*, etc., take an Infinitive denoting the tendency

of the activity and sometimes 'beginning in time'; this is the equivalent of the Latin Supine in 'um';

"And it came *to pass*".

"She finds the boy she went *to find*".

"I nearer drew *to gaze*".

"As we rose *to leave* the room".

(ii) Verbs denoting *resting, tarrying,* etc., take the Infinitive to denote the purpose or destination;

"He lies in wait *to catch* the poor".

"I live but *to perform* his bidding".

(iii) Intransitives, or Transitives used intransitively, denoting *inclination, utility, capacity, tendency,* etc., take the Infinitive to denote the purpose or result;

"If they incline *to think* you dangerous".

"We'll strive *to please* you".

"The heart on which I had so longed *to rest my head*".

(iv) A number of Intransitives, and Transitives used intransitively, take an Infinitive to express the idea of an accompanying activity as the motive of the first. These are usually Verbs denoting activity of emotion;

"I joy *to meet* thee"; *i.e.,* 'at meeting'.

"Caesar will shrink *to hear* the words thou utter'st".

(b) With Adjectives used adverbially:—

(i) An Infinitive stands in combination with an Adjective to denote various references of the Adjective to a notion of activity. Such

Adjectives express *inclination, readiness, capacity, appropriateness,* etc.;

"They be almost ready *to stone* me".

"Ne'er was I able *to endure* contempt".

"Mine eyes are hungry *to behold* her face",

"Am I not armed *to execute* his mandate".

(ii) The Infinitive is also used with Adjectives like *certain, sure, worthy, content, happy, tired,* etc., expressing emotion; the relation is variable;

"Whose shoes I am not worthy *to bear*".

"I am not glad *to see* you here".

"*To beg* I am ashamed".

"Fearless *to be o'er-matched* by living wight".

(iii) Adjectives meaning *easy, hard, important, ncessary, agreeable, beautiful,* etc., take an Infinitive expressing an activity with regard to which the Adjective is appropriate. This is the counterpart of the Latin Supine in 'u'. The Noun qualified is not the agent of the activity;

"Comedy seems so difficult *to write.*"

"So pure *to feel,* so sweet *to hear*".

"Of mixed emotions hard *to be described*".

(iv) The Infinitive is used to qualify Adjectives when determinations or measure are expressed by *so, as, such, enough, more, than* etc. The Infinitive then expresses a result to which the determination set by the predicate term is adequate or inadequate;

"You can't be such a fool as *to be jealous*".

"The night is too dark for us *to move in*".

"I am no such Cynic as *to believe*".

(c) **With Nouns used Adjectivally.**

(i) The Infinitive is freely used with Nouns in the sense of the Genitive of the Gerund and in other adjectival relations;

"Some falls are means the happier *to arise*".

"Give me your promise *to marry* her".

(ii) The Infinitive combines immediately with a Noun to express an activity belonging to the subject named, an activity impending or in progress, or to which the subject is adapted or inclined;

"Who of all ages *to succeed* will curse my head".

"A sight *to gladden* heaven".

"Notwithstanding the punishment justly *to be inflicted* on her".

Sometimes the Noun qualified does not name the agent of the activity;

"A part of their estate *to manage* as they please".

"Clean straw and fair water are blessings not always *to be come* by".

V. Looser uses of the Infinitive.

The Infinitive is found less closely connected with the structure of the sentence than in the uses hitherto considered;

(*a*) As determining an act by its consequences or purpose;

"The man is become one of us, *to know* good and evil".

'*To obtain* a certain good you would sell everything".

(*b*) As determining an act by its cause ;

"My hair doth stand on end *to hear* her curses".

"*To love* thou blam'st me not".

"Fool that I was *to quit* her".

(*c*) As an abbreviation of Interrogative and Relative clauses ;

"I know not what *to do*".

"Instruct the planets in what orbs *to run*".

"A pure spot wherein *to feel* my happiness".

VI. The Infinitive as the Verb of the sentence.

(*a*) Principally to express emotion ;

"And he *to turn* monster and *strike* his lawful host !"

"At my age *to talk* to me of such stuff !"

(*b*) As containing a reflection of the speaker, his intention etc. ;

"Not *to be weary* with you, he's in prison".

"Yet, *to say* truth, too late I thus contest".

CHAPTER XIII

ADVERBS AND INTERJECTIONS.

1. The Nature of Adverbs.

The functioning of Adverbs in the sentence has been already exhibited in connection with the other Parts of Speech. They are usually defined as words which qualify a Verb, an Adjective or another Adverb. Some would add that they also qualify Prepositions and Conjunctions, but when they appear to do this, it is better to look upon them as qualifying the whole phrase or clause of which the Preposition or Conjunction forms an element, and since such phrases or clauses are always adjectival or adverbial the definition will need no expansion.

The Adverb is sometimes found included in a sub-class of the Parts of Speech called the Particles, on the ground that, like Prepositions and Conjunctions, they are relating words and not notional words. This is erroneous for the Adverb is a notional word, and this is sufficiently shown by the fact that a clause can be substituted for it, and that the majority of the oblique cases of a Noun are really Adverbs.

2. Adverbs and Adjectives.

The class of words most nearly related to Adverbs are Adjectives and it is necessary clearly to distinguish the function of the one from that of the other. The Adjective is fundamentally the predicate word, expressing an activity or quality perceived or supposed to belong to the subject. When such activity or quality is considered apart from the object manifesting it, the name of such activity or quality becomes a Noun. The fundamental function of the Adverb is to express any kind of modification of such predicated quality or activity; in the case of an activity, such attendant circumstance of place, time, manner, etc., as more particularly limits or defines the activity, and in the case of a quality, most often its intensity or degree. The use of Adverbs with attributive or appositive words follows from their primary functioning. The kinship of Adverbs with Adjectives is best seen in the common use of words originally Adverbs for Adjectives and of Adjectives for Adverbs.

(a) Adverbs for Adjectives.

We may repeat that prepositional phrases, the equivalents of oblique Case forms, which are primarily Adverbs, are freely used as Adjectives. To these we may add the cases where words, normally Adverbs, are used as predicates after a copula, as "He is well", "He is here". The word 'well' does not happen to be used attributively but it is obviously qualificatory of the subject and therefore an Adjective; we can say 'a hale man'. 'Here', 'there', etc., are usually put after the

Noun when used attributively, as "The man *here* says he does not know", but 'here' is obviously qualificatory of man and it is no valid objection to say that "here' means 'that is here', for we can explain all atrributives in the same way. In the phrase 'the then king', the 'then' is usually explained by assuming an ellipsis of a Participle, 'the then reigning king' but it is quite possible to think that the word conveys a purely adjectival meaning by itself.

(b) Adjectives for Adverbs.

Many Adjectives and Adverbs are of the same form and they will be known as the one or the other by their functioning. Poets often use an Adjective instead of an Adverb ending in 'ly' by way of license, in order to overcome a metrical difficulty. To these cases we may add those wherein, to the idea of a qualification of an activity, is joined that of an adjectival qualification of the subject of it. The word then functions in a double way and the Adjective is the form employed ;

" *Slow* and *sure* comes up the golden year".
" *Clear* shone the skies".

When two Adjectives are used together, the first may function both adjectivally and adverbially, expressing an additional qualification and, at the same time, a modification of the second Adjective. This is especially the case with Participles ;

" More *lovely* fair than wood-nymph".
" It came more deep, more *piercing* loud".

4. Confusion of Adverbs with Prepositions, etc.

A fruitful source of error in parsing is the tendency to look upon words of a particular significance as belonging to a particular class. This is most frequently seen in connection with certain words which are used, now as Adverbs, now as Prepositions and now as Conjunctions. They should be parsed in accordance with their functioning in each particular case. We bring together the definitions of these three Parts of Speech.

An Adverb is a word which qualifies or determines a Verb, an Adjective or another Adverb, and every word, phrase or clause doing this work is an Adverb. An Adverb cannot qualify a Noun for in so doing it becomes an Adjective ; it cannot relate Nouns to other words for in so doing it becomes a Preposition ; it cannot join sentences for in so doing it becomes a Conjunction. A word, phrase or clause which does not express a modification of an adjectival or adverbial notion is not an Adverb.

A Preposition is used with a Noun or Noun equivalent to show the relation of such Noun to some other word in the sentence, and it performs no other function, or, to put the definition into closer relation to fact, we may say that the Preposition is the word expressing the relation of some other object activity or quality indicated in the sentence to the thing named by its Noun. A word which is a Preposition when so used, becomes an Adverb when used with a Verb or Adjective ; when used to join sentences to show their relation to one another it becomes a Conjunction. The Preposition relates elements within the judgment; the Conjunction relates judgments. A Preposition is primarily an element in an Adverb phrase.

A Conjunction relates sentences and clauses (*i.e.* judgments) to one another. It sometimes appears to relate words, but when it does so, it is in contracted sentences that it is found, and such sentences really express several distinct judgments. The particular kind of relation is indicated by the significance of the word, and this significance may be identical with that of the corresponding Adverb or Preposition.

Many Adverbs are regularly employed in English with particular Verbs to produce special meanings ; the Verb and Adverb then together form a composite notion, the equivalent of the compounds of classical languages created by prefixing the Adverb to the Verb, as "He is *getting on*", "She *faded away*". Such forms can be followed by Prepositions

in the usual way, as "I get *on with* my work": 'on' is an Adverb, 'with' is a Preposition.

5. Kinds of Adverbs.

The functioning of Adverbs is so regular that a classification of simple Adverbs based on variation of function is hardly possible, but the Modal Adverbs treated of at the end of this Chapter exercise a peculiar function. We give a classification based on significance and may mention that Adverbs, like Prepositions, fall into groups roughly corresponding to the oblique Cases of Nouns. The number of simple Adverbs is large, but by no means sufficient for purposes of speech and the lack is made good by oblique Case forms, by prepositional phrases and by clauses used adverbially; these expedients are further supplemented by the adverbial force of Adjectives, and by the adverbial force of the inflections for comparison, for time and for phase of action.

I. Adverbs of Place.

(*a*) Place in which; *here, there, anywhere, elsewhere, below, above, etc.*

(*b*) Place from which; *hence, thence, from above, from below, whence, etc.*

(*c*) Place towards which; *hither, thither, eastward, skyward, etc.*

II. Adverbs of Time.

(*a*) To denote a point or space of time;

(i) Present time; *now, at present, to-day, etc.*

(ii) Past time; *yesterday, lately, formerly, before, etc.*

(iii) Future time; *to-morrow, soon, presently, hereafter, etc.*

(*b*) To denote continuance of activity as well as extension from or up to a point of time; *still, ever, always, henceforth, since, hitherto, etc.*

(*c*) To denote repetition of activity; *again, once more, twice, often, daily, etc.*

(*d*) To denote contemporaneousness of activity, or temporal succession of the same; *then, after, afterwards, forthwith, first, last, etc.*

(*e*) To denote time with a suggestion of appropriateness or expectation; *early, late, between, already, suddenly, etc.*

III. Adverbs of Manner.

(*a*) For Interrogative, Relative and Demonstrative Adverbs, see the section on the Pronouns.

(*b*) Manner with a notional determination, a class coextensive with Adjectives of quality more strictly such; *well, wisely, admirably, lovingly, laughingly, etc.*

(*c*) Determination of manner or degree; *little, enough, half, more, most, hardly, abundantly, etc.*

(*d*) Adverbs denoting :—

(i) Order of rank; *principally, chiefly, mainly, firstly, etc.*

(ii) Addition with sometimes the idea of outbidding superadded; *further, besides, moreover, etc.*

(iii) Community of action; *together, mutually, etc.*

(iv) Separateness; *asunder, apart, separately, etc.*

(v) Interchange; *alternately, by turns, etc.*

IV. Adverbs of Causality.

Simple Adverbs of causality are few in number and such words are more commonly used as Conjunctions. Examples are, *accordingly, therefore, consequently.*

(It may be noticed that adverbial phrases and clauses, for the most part, can be classified as above.)

6. Modal Adverbs.

A certain number of so-called Adverbs are found whose office is not to qualify the adjectival predicate notion, as do those already mentioned, but to express modifications of the act of judgment, *i.e.*, of the copula in the sentence; they thus

exert a modal force and might quite well be made a special class of words. For example in the sentence "Perhaps he is going", the word 'perhaps' does not express any modification of the act of going, but that the speaker intends to say that the proposition stated in the Indicative form is but possibly true, *i.e.*, the Mood of the sentence is really Dubitative and this character is given to it by the word 'perhaps'.

These modal Adverbs or copula modifiers may be divided into :—

(*a*) Those which strengthen an affirmative assertion, as *truly, certainly, surely, indeed, etc.*

(*b*) Those which strengthen a negative assertion, as *not at all, by no means, never, etc.*

(*c*) Those which express or emphasise possibility, probability, etc., *i.e.*, heighten the hypothetical element; *perhaps, probably, possibly, peradventure, etc.*

7. Comparison of Adverbs.

Some Adverbs are inflected for degree of comparison or may be comparatively qualified by other Adverbs. The method of inflection is usually that employed in the comparison of Adjectives, but for the Adverb is usually reserved a special form, frequently the neuter singular, and this is not further inflected for concord. (See end of Chapter IX.)

INTERJECTIONS.

Interjections, as we have said, have no place in the organised sentence and therefore call for little comment. They range from mere involuntary sounds, such as the noise of sighing, laughing, etc., through syllables which have become recognised expressions of emotion of definite kind, as, Oh ! fie ! pish !, to expressions made up of words of definite meaning, as 'Well done !' The purpose of the Interjection, so far as it is used with intention, is to indicate to the person addressed the emotion or feeling of the utterer ; it therefore

conveys information just as much as an organised sentence does. That it does this in such a simple way is due to the fact that the Interjection suggests the changing object in a sentence whose predicate and subject remain the same. For example the Interjection 'Alas' suggests the idea of regret or sorrow and this forms the object of the sentence "I feel sorrow—regret." We may note that physical manifestations of feeling practically do the work of Interjections. The purpose of exclamatory sentences is also to convey information regarding the feelings aroused in the mind of the speaker by a proposition, and they therefore have an Interjectional character.

CHAPTER XIV

NEGATIVE SENTENCES.

We have already stated that 'not' is best taken as a part of the copula itself, denying the union of the predicate notion with the subject notion. This view is supported by the usage of many Indian languages which attach the negative sign directly to the Verb.

Some languages employ two such negatives, the one expressing denial of actuality and the other denial of an idea merely, *i.e.*, the one is appropriately used with the Indicative, and the other with the Subjunctive and other Moods expressing doubt. The point must be carefully noted when dealing with languages wherein the two negatives are found.

In modern English it is considered wrong to use two negative words in the same sentence, because one is taken to negate the other and the result is a simple affirmative. This is not the case in many languages, where the second negative strengthens the first. For example the vulgar colloquialism "I never saw no sheep", means in English "I always saw sheep," in other languages it would mean, "I saw no sheep at all at any time".

'Yes' and 'No' used alone are to be understood as repeating the Copula of the sentence affirmed or negated, for they express agreement or disagreement with a suggested act of the judgment, *e.g.*, "Is the room warm enough ?" "Yes", *i.e.*, it is warm enough ; "No" *i.e.*, it is not warm enough ; the relation of subject and predicate is affirmed or denied ; no new subject or predicate is considered. Another use is seen in sentences like "Yes, I will go to-morrow" ; "No, I will wait till the day after". The 'Yes' or 'No' affirms or denies a judgment already made by the speaker, but expressed after the word expressing the nature of its copula.

A negative assertion may be made in three ways ; the subject may be a negative form ; the copula may be negative ; or the predicate may denote the opposite of a suggested quality, *e.g.*, "No dog is a reptile", "A dog is not a reptile", "A dog is a mammal or non-reptile" ; either expression excludes dogs from the class 'reptiles'. We do not pursue this subject further as it leads beyond the scope of this book, but the distinction between affirmative and negative sentences is of great importance in Logic, for the theory of the syllogism partly rests upon it.

INTERROGATIVE SENTENCES.

These have been already considered in the section on the Interrogatives, but a few additional remarks are required. It is important to notice that in English the Interrogative in a simple sentence always comes at the beginning, whatever may be the element that is asked for. In a sentence like "Who is he ?" it is the 'he' which names the subject and the 'who' asks for a predicate ; this must be noticed. In some languages the Interrogative comes first only when a subject of the suggested sentence is asked for. This placing of the interrogative word at the beginning enables the hearer to see that the sentence is interrogative from the start ; the change in the word order when a copula is asked for has the same effect. The student of Greek will remember how often he has

to read a sentence again because the interrogative sign is not reached until the sentence is completed. In speaking, the difficulty is not felt, because the tone of the voice is sufficient to indicate the question.

Two variations from the form of the simple question must be noticed; they are used when it is desired to suggest the answer required;

> "It is not heavy, is it?"
>
> "It is heavy, is it not?"

The first form suggests the answer 'No' and the second the answer 'Yes'; in both cases the 'Yes' or 'No' express assent to the judgment stated categorically, and dissent from that implied in the interrogative sentence. Other examples are:—

> "He has not gone away, has he?" Answer 'No'.
>
> "They will come to-day, will they not?" Answer "Yes".

Notice that in such questions, it is the copula of the categorical statement which is repeated; this naturally flows from the nature of the copula as the expression of the judgment. In India it is very common to hear sentences like, "He has not done the work, is it?" This is obviously wrong, since to say 'Yes' to such a question does not really answer the question. The right form, if the copula is not repeated, is, 'Is it not so?' or 'Is not this the case?' and these forms really suggest a repetition of the copula. When the categorical statement is formed by use of an inflected tense of the Aorist series, the copulas 'do' and 'did' are used for the present and past respectively, as "He writes well, *does* he not?" "They came yesterday, *did* they not?" We have already stated our opinion that 'do' and 'did' when used in this way are really copulas expressing aoristic judgments.

EXCLAMATORY SENTENCES.

The majority of exclamatory sentences are repetitions of other sentences uttered in such tone of voice that their special character is understood; in writing they are marked

by a peculiar point, an exclamation mark, placed at the end of the sentence; as "The result will be declared to-morrow!" Some exclamatory sentences are introduced by words which look like interrogatives but must be taken to be of purely exclamatory force. These are used when the speaker himself makes the initial statement of the matter causing the emotion; "What a clever boy he is!" "How beautifully it is painted!" It may be noted that the exclamatory sentence does not really state what it is intended to convey, *e.g.* if I say "He will come to-morrow!", I mean to say that *I am surprised* to hear it.

PART III

CHAPTER XV

THE JOINING OF SENTENCES.

1. The Nature of Conjunctions.

Hitherto we have been concerned mainly with simple sentences expressing simple judgments, although incidentally various forms of dependent clauses have been noticed. We have now to treat of successive expressions of judgments as they are employed in connected discourse and linked together by Conjunctions, or by words containing or implying a conjunctional element. In actual practice, sentences often follow one another without being definitely related by Conjunctions, but this must not be taken to mean that no connection exists. The relation of one judgment to another is often understood from its significance, and in sentences narrating a sequence of events, especially when the sequence is one of time, the Conjunctions are often omitted. This relation of one judgment to another exists also between successive statements by various speakers, or even when a sentence follows an interval of silence, for it really grows out

of some previous thought and is related to it in a way which a Conjunction would express. Whether or not a Conjunction is used depends upon the speaker's conception of what emphasis or rhetorical effect demands.

2. Compound Sentences.

A Compound sentence is usually defined as a sentence which consists of two or more simple sentences united by Conjunctions. The term is not satisfactory because it can hardly be right to call that a special kind of sentence which consists of several, each complete in itself and expressing an independent judgment. The term '*period*' is better. We treat of the means employed to define the relation of one sentence to another when each is the enunciation of a separate and independent judgment. The Conjunctions employed to express these relations are called Co-ordinating Conjunctions, but it is to be understood that such sentences are co-ordinate, not because of the Conjunctions, but because of their independent character. These Conjunctions may be classified as follows :—

(a) Cumulative Conjunctions.

Those which indicate that the second sentence adds something to the first in the same general reference ; they are, *and, both—and, also, likewise, as well as, not only—but also, partly—partly, first, then, secondly, further, now, well, too, no less than, etc.* Examples are :—

" He was *both* able *and* willing to do it".

" They were *not only* caught *but* punished".

" You think so, do you ? *Well,* I do not agree with you".

" That is his statement, *now* hear the other side".

" He is *no less* innocent *than* I am".

" He first wrote a letter *and* then spoke to me personally".

(b) Adversative Conjunctions.

Those which indicate that the sentences introduced by them stand in some sort of opposition to the preceding. They may be divided into :—

(i) *Alternative Conjunctions* ;

Not—but, else, otherwise, neither—nor, either—or, whether—or, etc. Examples are :—

"*Not* men *but* women do that work best".

"Run away, *otherwise* you will get into trouble".

"He *neither* became rich *nor* was he exactly poor".

"*Whether* you write first *or* wait for a message from him matters little".

"*Either* this must be mended *or* a new one must be made".

(ii) *Limitative Conjunctions.*

Those which indicate that a preceding statement is limited in its application by the statement introduced by them ; they are :—

But, but then, still, yet, nevertheless, only, however, for all that, at the same time ; *etc.*

"The boy is very clever *yet* he wins no prizes".

"All helped him, *nevertheless* he did not succeed".

"He will come to-morrow *but* I shall not see him".

"Do as you will, *only* consider the consequences".

(c) Illative Sentences.

Those which introduce a sentence expressing the logical consequence of the preceding statement ; they are:—

Therefore, wherefore, hence, whence, consequently, accordingly, so that, so, then, so then, for, etc.

"He was by nature kind *and therefore* found many friends".

"The applicant is capable, *for* all testify to that effect".

"It is too late, *so* let us try something else".

"The train has broken down, *consequently* it will be late".

"The matter is settled, *hence* there is no need of further consideration".

3. Contracted Sentences.

When two or more judgments contain a common element brevity is attained by stating them in a sentence which contains the common element but once; *e.g.*, we may say, "The house was burnt and the outhouses were burnt", and this may be contracted into "the house and the outhouses were burnt", thus stating the common predicate once only.

The various forms of Contracted Sentences are determined by the nature of the elements which go to make up a complete sentence; these are:—

Nouns as subjects, objects, predicates, or with prepositions;

Adjectives qualifying these, including prepositional phrases;

Verbs containing the predicate notion;

Adverbs qualifying (2) and (3), including phrases;

Copulas.

We give examples of sentences wherein one element only is composite, but contracted sentences may contain several elements so composite at one and the same time. The more complex present no difficulty if what takes place is understood. The Conjunction most commonly employed to link up the elements in the composite notion is 'and,' but other co-ordinating Conjunctions may be used. That these should be of the co-ordinating kind follows from the fact that the elements so linked together are all in the same relation to the rest of the sentence, and when the sentence is expanded in a

way to express the contained judgment separately, the result is a succession of independent, *i.e.*, co-ordinate, simple sentences.

(*a*) Several subjects, with one copula and predicate;
"Horses, cows and dogs are useful to man".
Horses are useful,
Cows are useful,
Dogs are useful.

Composite subjects of this kind are to be distinguished from cases where several Nouns are required to denote one idea or thing.

(*b*) Several object Accusatives of the same activity;
"I have bought knives, pencils, paper and ink".
Four judgments are involved.

(*c*) Several qualifications of the same Noun;
"Tall, dark and thin men were the most conspicuous".
The three classes of tall men, dark men, and thin men are distinguished, each qualification denoting a separate group. "Tall, dark, thin men" would mean the one group displaying all three characteristics, but even so a separate judgment would be necessary to determine each qualification.

(*d*) Several predicates of the same subject;
"Caesar came, saw and conquered". Three judgments.

(*e*). Several qualifications of the same Verb or Adjective;
"I met him in the street, at his house and at a neighbour's", *i.e.*, three several times at different places; three judgments are therefore involved. The use of several mutually exclusive qualifications must be distinguished from cases where different qualifications unite to define one single activity or quality more closely, *e.g.*, "I met him at his house at dinner on Monday."

(*f*) The Copula itself may be the composite element and variety in the copula is obtained by alterations in the logical quality of the judgment, in mood, or in time, as:—

"The man is and is not a fool".

"The work can and should be done to-morrow".

"He was, is and always will be very unreliable".

Another form of contraction is found where an element common to successive sentences, otherwise dissimilar is expressed in one sentence, and omitted but understood in a succeeding one, as, "The boys carried the heavy parcels and the girls the light ones"; 'carried' is omitted in the second sentence. This is most common where several predicates are affirmed of one subject, as "The rubbish was swept up, carried away and then burnt".

4. Complex Sentences.

Complex Sentences are those wherein clauses take the place of word elements in the simple sentence. Such clauses function as Nouns, Adjectives or Adverbs, and as nothing else, and we may conveniently treat of them under these heads. There are no such things as Verb Clauses because all predicates are fundamentally adjectival, and when used in dependent clauses this at once becomes apparent. Adjective clauses express activity just as frequently as they express a quality.

It is usual to call these clauses 'dependent clauses' and the majority of them are such, but it is necessary to understand how they come to bear this character. They function dependently because of the dependent character of the word for which they are substituted; an Adjective is always dependent on a Noun and an Adjective clause must therefore always be dependent; an Adverb is always dependent on an Adjective and the Adverb clause must therefore be dependent. The Noun clause is *not* always dependent, for it is sometimes the subject of the sentence; it is dependent when it is an object clause and therefore in the Accusative Case.

These clauses are the expression of judgments and contain within themselves everything necessary to the formation of a complete sentence; they can therefore be subjected to the ordinary process of analysis, but in analysing the complex sentence as a whole, it is better to treat the dependent clause as what it primarily is, *viz.*, a substitute for a Part of Speech.

These clauses are joined to the principal clause by what are usually called Subordinating Conjunctions, and it is common to find it stated that it is the Conjunction which makes the clause subordinate; this is hardly correct; the clauses are subordinate as a result of their functioning, and remain such when the Conjunction is omitted, or when, as in the case of appositive Participles, a Conjunction is not employed.

(a) Noun Clauses.

To understand the nature of a Noun clause it is necessary to remember that it is the expression of a judgment involving two terms and a stated relation, not of a single object of perception; a Noun clause must therefore be the subject or object of a mental activity or of a word signifying some activity of expression; it is not something which can be the object of a physical activity of the ordinary kind. An expression of a judgment can be written down, spoken of or thought upon, it cannot be moved, beaten, etc.

The Conjunction most commonly employed to introduce a Noun clause is 'that'; this word is not omitted before a subject clause but is frequently omitted before an object clause. Examples are:—

"THAT *the accident was due to carelessness* was obvious".

"His opinion was THAT *the bearer of the news was trustworthy*".

"We heard THAT *he would come*".

"We heard *he would come*". ('that' omitted.)

Many such clauses are introduced by the ordinary Relatives :—

"We told him WHEN *he should speak*".

"They told us WHERE *we should find him*".

"Explain HOW *you came to make such a mistake*".

"Tell me WHY *you did as you say*".

The omitted antecedent of the Pronoun may be supplied and the clause then becomes adjectival :—

"Tell me the reason WHY *you did as you say*".

"They told us the place WHERE (in which) *we might find him*".

After Verbs of questioning the Noun clause is introduced by the corresponding Interrogatives ; these are indirect questions :—

"They asked me WHERE *I was going*".

"He enquired WHETHER *it would be possible*".

"The doctor asked me HOW *I did*".

Participles, Gerunds and Infinitives can equally well be followed by Noun clauses stating the object of the activity :—

"Having heard THAT *the things would be sold next day*, I hastened to make a bid for them".

"His thinking THAT *a crisis was near* led him to act impulsively".

"To demand THAT *I should forego my advantage* is to ask too much of me".

Noun clauses often stand in apposition to some other word which states the character of the judgment denoted by the clause ; such words are thought, opinion, fact, suggestion, announcement, etc., they express various forms of mental activity :

"The opinion THAT *money is an evil* is not very commonly acted upon".

"The fact THAT *the berries were poisonous* ought to have been pointed out to him".

The functioning of the Noun clause here is clearly adjectival according to what has been already said on the true functioning of all appositional forms.

(b) Adjective Clauses.

We have already considered Adjective clauses in the section on the Relatives and that on the Relative Pronouns. Appositive Participles also form Adjective clauses, although, at the same time, they function adverbially. All Adjectives used attributively or appositively can be paraphrased by relative clauses, and this is the usual method employed when the qualifying idea is one of activity and no Participle is available, or when a modal relation other than the Indicative is to be expressed. We give a few more examples :—

"The bird WHICH *you hear* is a thrush".

"The postman WHO *brings the letters* is an old servant of mine".

"The house in WHICH *you are living* will soon be sold".

"*Being very poor* he had nothing to give in charity".

"*Having studied the science for many years* he was well-versed in it".

Notice what was said in the last paragraph regarding appositional clauses. Notice also the conjunctional force of the relatives.

(c) Adverb Clauses.

The various kinds of Adverb clauses are the following ; they express qualifications of the main predicate notion of the principal clause :—

(i) Local.

Indicating the *location* of the activity or quality expressed by the main predicate word in the principal clause :

"He was standing WHERE *I put him*".

"She is gone WHENCE *she will never return*".

"WHITHER *I go* ye cannot come".

"It is black WHERE *the paint has touched it*".

(ii) Temporal.

Indicating the *time* of the activity or quality expressed by the principal predicate word :

"He finished the work AFTER *he had received his money*".

"They came BEFORE *I was awake*".

"NO SOONER *did he hear the report* THAN he hastened to the spot".

"We stayed UNTIL *the clock struck twelve*".

"I work WHILE *you play*".

"He wrote AS SOON AS *he understood what was required*".

"The army will move WHEN *its equipment is complete*",

"Stay AS LONG AS *you can*".

(iii) Conditional.

Indicating the *condition* determining the activity or quality denoted by the principal predicate :

"IF *he goes by the next train* he will be in time".

"It will be done UNLESS *something unforeseen happens*".

"You must do this WHETHER *it is agreeable or no*".

"I will come PROVIDED *you do not ask me to take any active part*".

(iv) Causal.

Indicating the *cause* or *reason* of the activity or quality denoted by the principal predicate ;

"He concluded the bargain at once BECAUSE *there was no time to deliberate*".

"The coat was spoiled BECAUSE *it was left out in the rain*".

"The match will not be played FOR *the weather is too unsettled*".

(v) Final.

Indicating the *purpose* of the activity or quality:

"She remained silent IN ORDER THAT *no one might accuse her of interference*".

"The burglar took off his boots LEST *his movements should be heard*".

"We wrote as we did THAT *you might not be misled*".

"The road is lighted SO THAT *there may be no accidents*".

(vi) Concessive.

Indicating the *limits* of the activity or quality;

"He is a good workman ALTHOUGH *he is very unpunctual*".

"He will not gain his point HOWEVER *much he may try*".

"ALTHOUGH *he works hard* STILL he saves no money".

"*Clever* AS *he is* he often makes mistakes".

"ALTHOUGH *the times are bad* YET he is doing very well in business".

(vii) Consecutive.

Indicating the *result* of the activity or quality;

"She clung to me so tightly THAT *I could not get away*".

"The car went so fast THAT *the tyres* were *wrenched off*".

(viii) Comparative.

Indicating the *manner* of the activity or quality;

"Men will reap AS *they sow*".

"That is not true SO FAR AS *I know*".

"AS *the twig is bent* SO the tree inclines".

"Troops are reliable ACCORDING AS *their training has been thorough*".

"He loves me more THAN *I love him*".
"The water is deeper THAN *this house is high*".

The frequent use of 'that' as a Conjunction points to the manner in which many Conjunctions have been formed. If we look upon 'that' as introducing a Noun clause, this clause can then be the object of a Preposition, *e.g.* "He came after I did", *i.e.* 'after that I did', *i.e.* after my coming. When the 'that' is omitted 'after' becomes a Conjunction. We may notice that many of these clauses can receive expression by means of Gerunds, as "They went away after they had made their complaint", *i.e.*, 'after making their complaint'.

A common mistake is to look upon many of these Conjunctions as Adverbs; a little scrutiny will show that it is the whole clause introduced by the Conjunction which is the real qualifying notion.

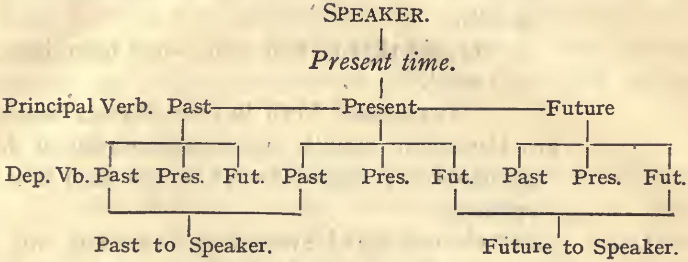
CHAPTER XVI

SEQUENCE OF TENSES.

The presence of dependent clauses in a complex sentence gives rise in English and in other languages to certain usages in the matter of the expression of time. We explain the English usage and its grounds; from this explanation the student will be able to understand whatever he may meet with in the study of other languages.

In any simple sentence or in the principal clause of a complex sentence, the time of the Verb is determined from the stand-point of the speaker who speaks in present time, and the Verb will be present, past or future with reference to that time. When the sentence is complex, the time of the dependent Verb may be determined with reference to the

time of the principal Verb, or with reference to the time of the speaker; we may express this by means of the following diagram:—



The application of this to practice is somewhat capricious. It is necessary to remember that our remarks refer to time only and not to phase of action, and are applicable to tenses in all series.

(*a*) When the principal Verb is in present time, the time of the speaker and that of the activity coincides, and the dependent Verb is in the same relation to both; it is therefore put in any suitable tense and no complication arises:

Dependent Verb present to Principal Verb;
"He says that he is doing".

Dependent Verb past to Principal Verb;
"He says that he was doing".

Dependent Verb future to Principal Verb;
"He says that he will do".

(*b*) When the principal Verb is in past time, English usage demands that the time of the dependent Verb shall, in many cases, be determined from the standpoint of the speaker, and we get the following results:—

(i) Dependent activity coincident in time with the principal Verb and so past to the time of the speaker;

"He said that he was doing,—did,—was about to do";

Dependent Verb in simple past tenses.

(ii) Dependent activity antecedent to the past time of the principal Verb and therefore a past beyond a past from the standpoint of the speaker:

"He said that he had done,—had been doing, etc".

Dependent Verb in past Perfect tenses.

(iii) Dependent activity future to the time of the principal Verb but still past to the time of the speaker:

"He said that he would do,—be doing, etc".

Dependent Verb in past tenses with 'should' and 'would'.

(*c*) When the principal Verb is in future time, the time of the dependent Verb is related to the time of the principal Verb with no regard to the time of the speaker:

(i) Dependent activity present to the time of the principal Verb:

"He will say that he does,—is doing,—has done, etc".

(ii) Dependent activity past to the time of the principal Verb:

"He will say that he did,—was doing,—had been doing."

(iii) Dependent activity future to the time of the principal Verb:

"He will say that he will do,—be doing,—will have done, etc".

The resultant rule emerges that when the Verb of the principal clause is in past time, then the dependent Verb, being determined from the standpoint of the speaker, must also be in past time, whatever may be its relation to the time of the principal Verb: but when the principal Verb is in present or future time, the time of the dependent Verb is related to that of the principal Verb with no regard to the time of the speaker,

This rule is not applicable to all dependent clauses and the various kinds must be examined in detail. It is also subject to another exception even when it does come into operation, *viz.*, that the Gnomic present may be used instead of a past tense, and this is possible because, as has been already shown, this tense expresses the activity with little or no regard to time.

(a) Noun Clauses.

Since the Noun clause is used almost exclusively with Verbs of *saying, thinking, believing, etc.*, and expresses an object of some mental activity, it is closely related in time to the principal Verb and the rule applies :—

"He said that he was doing".

"That the matter was urgent was generally recognised".

"They knew that they would have to go at once".

"They understood that he had been waiting to apply to them".

(b) Adjective Clauses.

In Adjective clauses the activity expressed by the dependent Verb is qualificatory, not of the principal Verb, but of a Noun in the principal clause ; it is not therefore necessarily related in time to the principal Verb and the rule does not apply :—

"The woman who is sitting there gave me much trouble".

"He once badly injured the man who now manages his business".

"The boy that you see there was a favourite pupil of mine".

(c) Adverb Clauses.

With reference to the subject before us, Adverb clauses may be divided into two classes,

(i) Those wherein it is not the activity expressed by the subordinate clause, but some qualification

of that activity, which furnishes the qualification of the principal Verb; these are *local, temporal* and *comparative* clauses and they are the clauses which are usually introduced by relative words.

Local clauses indicate the place of the activity expressed by both clauses, and as this place abides independently of the activity which takes place in it, the rule does not apply;

"The stone *was* placed where the building *will be* erected".

Comparative clauses express the manner of the activity in both clauses, and an activity can be repeated in a particular manner at any time; the rule therefore does not apply;

"He *made* a mistake just as others *make* mistakes and *will continue* to make mistakes".

"The house *was* furnished as I *am going* to furnish mine".

Temporal clauses express the time of the activity in both clauses and since time is the essential point of the matter the rule applies;

"He spoke when he was called upon".

"The gun was fired when the signal was given".

(ii) In the other Adverb clauses it is the activity itself which furnishes the qualification of the principal activity. The Conjunctions employed in them contain no pronominal element, since there is no reference to any unmentioned antecedent as in the case of the relatives. Most of these clauses are subject to the rule, but their significance is such that all cases cannot occur. A *condition, concession* or

cause is logically prior to its *consequent, limitation,* or *effect* respectively and cannot therefore appear as future to a principal Verb, *i.e.*, the dependent Verb can only be present or past in relation to the principal Verb. A *purpose* or *result* is logically subsequent to what is done with a view to it and cannot appear as prior to it in time. The rule regarding the sequence of tenses applies to all the clauses now considered except Consecutive clauses; in the case of these it is clear that the result of an activity may abide on into time future to the speaker.

Conditional;

> "If they *had* heard the news they *would have been* deeply grieved".

Concessive;

> "He *was* repeatedly warned but yet he *persisted* in his extravagant ways".

Causal;

> "The work *was* badly done because the workmen *were* ill-paid".

Final;

> "The boy *ran* away in order that he *might* escape punishment".

Consecutive;

> "The house *was* built so carefully that it *will* last for centuries".

CHAPTER XVII

INDIRECT SPEECH.

1. Its Nature.

Object Noun Clauses after Verbs of *saying, thinking, suggesting, asking, commanding, etc., i.e.,* clauses which denote an activity of thought or expression, may take two forms in English and in some other languages. In Sanskrit and the Indian languages the indirect form of speech of which we are now to speak is seldom found; in Latin and Greek the construction of the Accusative with the Infinitive is commonly used in indirect speech and this construction has been explained in the section on the Infinitive. We may give here as an example the sentence "He said that Caesar had written a letter"; in Latin this would be "Dixit Caesarem epistolam scripsisse"; the two Nouns are both in the Accusative and the context decides which of these is to be taken as the agent of the activity denoted by the Infinitive, and which as the object of this activity. Both languages also employ the full Noun clause.

The two possible forms in English to which we referred above are the following. When it is desired to report the exact words of another, the words of the original speaker are given as he said them, as "He said, I will go"; this is called Direct Speech or Narration and is the form employed in Indian languages. When it is the subject matter of the speech which is remembered, but the exact words are not repeated, the clause takes what is called the indirect or oblique form. This change from the direct to the indirect form of narration leads to certain changes in the Verb, in the person of the subject or object Pronoun, and in the adverbial time qualifications of the Noun clause. We treat of these in detail, distinguishing the reporter, the original speaker of the speech reported, and the hearer of the report.

2. The Verb in Indirect Speech.

The original speaker naturally speaks from his own standpoint, and the time of the Verb of his statement is determined by the facts before him; the reporter, if he reports *directly*, repeats this statement. When the reported speech is narrated *indirectly*, and the clause indicating the original speaker is in past time, the rules for the sequence of tenses come into play. We give a full list of examples as they illustrate the results of the application of the rule in all cases when the principal Verb is in past time. When the time of the original speaker is present or future to that of the reporter, no change in tense is needed in the object clause; it is simply related to the principal Verb of narration with no regard to the time of the reporter.

	Direct.	*Indirect.*
He said,	'She does',	He said she did.
,,	'She did',	He said she had done.
,,	'She had done',	He said she had done.
,,	'She is doing',	He said she was doing.
,,	'She was doing',	He said she had been doing.
,,	'She will be doing',	He said she would be doing.
,,	'She has done',	He said she had done.
,,	'She had done',	He said she had done.
,,	'She will have done',	He said she would have done.
,,	'She is about to do',	He said she was about to do.
,,	'She was about to do',	He said she had been about to do.
,,	'She will be about to do',	He said she would be about to do.
,,	'She has been doing',	He said she had been doing.
,,	'She had been doing',	He said she had been doing.
,,	'She will have been doing',	He said she would have been doing.
,,	'She has been about to do',	He said she had been about to do.

Direct.	*Indirect.*
He said, 'She had been about to do',	He said she had been about to do.
,, 'She will have been about to do',	He said she would have been about to do.

Other modal forms can easily be made :—

Direct.	*Indirect.*
He said 'She shall do',	He said she should do,
,, 'She must do',	He said she must do.
,, 'She may do',	He said she might do.

The object clause may in itself be complex and the rule still applies :—

He said, "Although she is severe yet she is not unkind".

He said that although she was severe yet she was not unkind.

4. The Pronominal Subject or Object.

When the object clause is in direct narration, the person of a Pronoun in the clause is determined from the standpoint of the original speaker, but when it is in indirect narration the person of the Pronoun is determined from the point of view of the reporter in all cases, whatever may be the time of the principal Verb; this leads to the following results :—

(*a*) When the reporter narrates his own previous statement no change is necessary in the Pronoun; the persons indicated still stand in the same relation to the reporter :

Direct,	I said, 'I will do it";
Indirect,	I said I would do it.
Direct,	I said, 'He will do it';
Indirect,	I said he would do it.

(*b*) When the original speaker is in the second person, the following changes take place in the Pronouns :—

(i) What is first person with reference to the original speaker, becomes second person to the reporter :

You said 'I will do.'

You said you would do.

You say, 'I will do,'
You say you will do.

(ii) What is second person to the original speaker becomes either first or third person to the reporter;

You said 'You will do', (Reporter addressed.)
You said I would do.
You said, 'You will do', (Some other person addressed.)
You said he (she or they) would do.

(iii) What is third person to the original speaker remains third person in the indirect form:

You said 'He will do',
You said he would do.

(*c*) When the original speaker is in the third person, the following changes take place :—

(i) What is first person to the original speaker becomes third person to the reporter:

He said, 'I will do',
He said he would do.

(ii) What is second person to the original speaker becomes first, second, or third person to the reporter, according to the person addressed by the original speaker;

He said, "You will do", (Reporter addressed.)
He said I would do.
He said, "You will do", (Hearer of report addressed.)
He said you would do.
He said, "You will do", (A third person addressed.)
He said he (she or they) would do.

(iii) What is third person to the original speaker becomes first, second or third person to the reporter:

He said, "He will do", (Speaking of reporter.)
He said I would do.

He said, "He will do", (Speaking of hearer of report.)

He said you would do.

He said, "He will do", (Speaking of some third person.)

He said he would do.

For clearness of illustration we have retained the same sentence throughout and the Pronoun is the subject of the clause in all cases, but the student should understand that what is said is true of all Pronouns, and the changes are made without regard to the time of the principal Verb.

5. Adverbial time qualifications.

When an adverbial time qualification is included in the reported speech, such qualification must be modified in indirect narration, whenever necessary, to bring it into right relation to the time of the reporter, *i.e.*, whenever the Verb of narration is past or future to the time of the reporter. When the Verb is in present time no change is necessary, because the time of the principal Verb and that of the reporter coincide :

He says, " I will do it now ".

He says he will do it now.

He said, " I did it yesterday ".

He said he had done it the day before.

He said, " I will do it to-morrow " ;

He said he would do it the next day.

He will say, "I will do it to-morrow ".

He will say that he will do it the next day.

When the reporter speaks within the limits of the time set by the reported speech, the changes in the adverbial time qualification are not made, *e.g* :

He said, " I will do it to-day ".

He said he would do it to-day.

The reporter repeats the statement within the period of time defined by the original speaker ; if he did so after the time specified had expired, he would have to substitute another expression of time.

6. Indirect Questions.

When the object clause is a question and this is put into the indirect form, the following changes take place :—

(*a*) For the Verb of saying is substituted a Verb of questioning ;

(*b*) The Verb of the object clause follows the rule of time sequence if the Verb of questioning is in past time ;

(*c*) The changes in person and in the adverbial time qualifications are made ;

(*d*) The interrogative word is retained if there is one in the direct question, and if there is not, the indirect clause is introduced by 'whether' or 'if' ;

(*e*) The object clause is put in the usual order of assertive sentences, *i.e.*, the copula follows the Nominative. Examples are :—

Direct, He said to me, "Why did you do it ? "
Indirect, He asked me why I did it.
Direct, He said to me, "Where did you go yesterday?"
Indirect, He asked me where I had gone the day before.
Direct, He said to me, " Will you come to-morrow ?"
Indirect, He asked me whether I would come the next day.

7. Indirect Commands and Petitions.

When the object clause expressing a petition or command is narrated indirectly, the following changes take place :

(*a*) The Verb of saying becomes a Verb of telling, commanding, petitioning, etc.;

(*b*) The Verb of the object clause becomes an Infinitive ;

(*c*) The person commanded or petitioned becomes the Accusative of the Verb of commanding, etc., and is then taken as the agent of the activity denoted by the Infinitive ;

(*d*) The rules for sequence apply when the Verb of commanding is in past time ;

(*e*) Pronouns and adverbial qualifications are modified as shown above.

Direct, I said to him, "Bring the book you took yesterday".

Indirect, I told him to bring the book he had taken the day before.

Direct, He said to me, " Give it to the man who will call for it to-morrow " ;

Indirect, He ordered me to give it to the man who would call for it the next day.

Direct, He said, "Please allow me to be present";

Indirect, He asked me to allow him to be present.

8. Indirect Exclamations.

When a direct exclamation is made indirect, the Verb of saying is changed to one signifying exclamation, or the Verb of saying is qualified by an adverbial phrase of similar meaning ; the object clause is then treated in the usual way in the matter of tense, Pronouns and adverbial time qualifications.

He said, "What a beautiful day it was yesterday ! "

He exclaimed what a beautiful day it had been the day before.

He said, " How lazy you are ! "

He remarked with contempt how lazy he was.

N. B.—These detailed explanations of Sequence of Tenses and Indirect Speech apply directly to English ; an understanding of them will enable the student to find his way when he meets with kindred phenomena in another language, but these vary somewhat from one language to another.

CHAPTER XVIII

COMPOUND WORDS, Etc.

Two or more words may be united to form compound words and the words so joined are related to one another in various ways, such relations being the more simple of those of which we have already spoken. The English language makes less use of such compounds than do many languages, while others, *e.g.*, Sanskrit, use them to excess. In this last-named tongue the practice is carried to such length that whole lines may consist of one compound word whose elements stand in various relations to each other, while there is no mark of any relation in them except that appended to the last member Compounds whose components are related in familiar and simple ways, such that their meaning is at once evident, are of great convenience, but when the power to form them is too freely exercised, the result is anything but good, for the longer the compound, the greater grows the possibility that the relations intended will not be properly understood.

In the formation of compounds, fixed methods of uniting the elements are usually employed with a view to producing a euphonious result; the terminal letter of the first element or the initial of the second in the compound is changed, or a light vowel is inserted between them. These methods vary from one language to another and are the proper subject-matter of the science of philology; we do not therefore treat of them here. In Sanskrit the rules which determine the manner of forming compounds, and which also apply to the succession of words in the ordinary way, are very elaborate.

The character of a normal compound of two words is determined by its last member, and the first is related to this as a qualifying word. The last member must therefore be some word which can be so qualified, *i.e.*, a Noun, an Adjective, a Participle, a Verb or an Adverb.

(a) The Noun as second member.

(i) The Noun may be qualified or determined by another Noun, and the first will be related to the second in a way which is fully expressed by an oblique Case or by a prepositional phrase ;—

Door-post, the post of a door ; Genitive relation ;

Man-slayer, a slayer of men ; Accusative relation ;

Lake-dweller, a dweller on a lake ; Locative relation ;

Tooth-brush, a brush for the teeth ; Dative relation ;

Pit-coal, coal from a pit ; Ablative relation ;

Hand-saw, a saw worked by hand ; Instrumental relation.

The first Noun functions as an Adjective.

(ii) Nouns are qualified by attributive Adjectives ; certain Adjectives may be so habitually used that the Noun with its Adjective comes to be uttered as one word ; as Longshanks, Blue-beard.

(iii) The Noun may be qualified by a cardinal number which is used with it to form one single idea, as in 'fortnight,' *i.e.*, a period of fourteen days and nights.

(iv) The Noun may be qualified by a prefixed Preposition which may be looked upon as the equivalent of an adjectival phrase, as *out-house*, *over-bridge*. When the Noun is a word denoting activity, what looks like a Preposition used as an Adjective may also be considered to be an Adverb qualifying the notion of activity as in the case of Gerunds, as *out-look*, *up-lift*.

(v) A special class of compounds is found in Sanskrit wherein the various members exercise no qualifying power, but signify various elements in a whole. For example the subject of the sentence, "Nephews, nieces, sons and daughters assembled to hear the will," if translated into Sanksrit might be expressed by a compound word of which the

last member only would receive the Nominative termination, while the remainder would be in the simple root form.

(b) Adjectives as second member.

(i) Adjectives are qualifiable only by Adverbs or their equivalents. Many compounds are formed by prefixing simple Adverbs to Adjectives, the whole forming one word, as *well-informed, ill-nourished, out-standing.*

(ii) We may include under these all words compounded of a Verb and a prefixed Adverb, because the Adverb in such forms qualifies the predicate notion, *i.e.*, the adjectival element in the Verb.

(iii) We may also include words whose first element is a negative prefix, a prefix which cannot be used as a separate word but functions as an Adverb, as *unaltered, unapparent.*

(iv) Since adverbial phrases are formed by Prepositions with Nouns or by Case forms, we may find Nouns forming the first element in an Adjective compound. The Case relation is then read into them in the way explained in (a) (i) *e.g. soul-destroying, i.e.,* destroying the soul; *hand-made, i.e.,* made by hand.

(c) Adverbs as second member.

Adverbs only can qualify other Adverbs and the first member of an Adverb compound must be an Adverb or its equivalent, and is usually one of a small group of simple Adverbs as *ill-advisedly.*

Some compounds come to be used as Proper Nouns and are then restricted to one individual as in 'Blue-beard,' but this does not affect the grammatical relation of the elements which make up the compound.

DERIVATIVE WORDS.

The vocabulary of a language springs from a limited number of roots and many languages retain the power to make such derivatives at will. English has to a very large extent lost this power and borrows ready-made words

instead. Some compensation is found in the practice of employing a word as more than one Part of Speech, and English employs this device more freely than most languages. The methods employed by a particular language in the formation of derivative words must be learnt from a study of the language itself.

EMPHASIS AND TONE OF VOICE.

Emphasis plays an important part in speech because the trend of a conversation is mainly determined by it. Where there is no particular emphasis, the proposition displays itself as one whole, presenting several points of departure for thought; by emphasising one particular element the speaker fixes the attention of the hearer upon this element and so suggests something connected with it, thus directing the conversation. We may illustrate this by the example:—

"I bought three books":

Emphasis on 'I' suggests a contrast with the action of someone else;

Emphasis on 'bought' suggests some other manner of acquirement;

Emphasis on 'three' suggests comparison with some other possible number, or some reason why three and not more were purchased.

Emphasis on 'books' suggests that a choice between various objects was exercised, etc.

A conversation in which the sentence occurred would probably take the direction suggested by the emphasised word.

Emphasis in writing is attained by putting the word to be emphasised out of its usual order, but emphasis is of less moment in writing than in conversation because the writer can continue as he pleases.

The tone of the voice has most to do in conveying to the hearer the subjective feeling of the speaker, and in this way contributes to modal expression. Irony and sarcasm largely depend upon it and hence it is that ironical writing is often taken for earnest; the reader has nothing but the sense to guide him and this is often insufficient.

APPENDIX

Specimens of sentences analysed in a formal manner in accordance with the principles explained in this book.

CONTRACTED SENTENCE.

"He is a perpetual fountain of good sense, learned in all sciences, and therefore speaks properly on all subjects."

Subject	He		Pronoun
Copula	is		Verb
1st Pred.	a		Article
	perpetual		Adjective
	fountain		Noun
	of	Adj. Phr. to 'fountain'	Preposition
	good		Adjective
	sense		Noun
2nd Pred.	learned		Adjective
	in	Adv. Phr. to 'learned'	Preposition
	all		Adjective
	sciences		Noun
	and		Conjunction
(Subject)	(he)		
	therefore		Conjunction
2nd Copula	(speaks)		Verb
3rd Pred.	speaks		Adjective
	properly		Adverb
	on	Adv. Phr. to 'speaks'	Preposition
	all		Adjective
	subjects		Noun

COMPLEX SENTENCE.

"The mass of waters, which was now dark and threatening, began to lift itself in larger ridges, forming waves that rose high in foam upon the breakers."

Subject	The mass	
	of waters	Adj. Phr. to 'mass'
	which was now dark and threatening	Adj. Cl. to 'mass'
Copula	(began)	
1st Pred.	began	
	to lift itself	Obj. Noun Phr. to 'began'
	in larger ridges	Adv. Phr. to 'lift'
2nd Pred.	forming (and began to form)	
	waves	
	that rose high in foam upon the breakers	Adj. Cl. to 'waves'
	in foam	Adv. Phr. to 'rose'
	upon the breakers	Adv. Phr. to 'rose'

Secondary Analysis of Clauses

S.	C.	P.
Which	was	dark and threatening.
That	(rose)	rose high in foam, etc.

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